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The
GOVERNORS-GENERAL
of
CANADA
1608 — 1931



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by

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Officier de l'Instruction Publique (France)



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TO

HIS EXCELLENCY

VISCOUNT WILLINGDON,

G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G., G.C.I.E., G.B.E.,

VICEROY OF INDIA,

EX-GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF CANADA.

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The Romance of Canada.

IT is doubtful whether any work of fiction could equal in passionate interest the history of the Governors-General of Canada, from the day that Samuel Champlain built his "Abitation"—a wooden fortress under the bluff of Quebec—in 1608, down to our own times.

French idealism, military valour, religious fervour, and the spirit of adventure, laid in North America the foundations of a civilization which will endure, because it satisfied the fundamental need of humanity: law and religion. To-day some five million Canadians of French descent—of the race that produced such hardy pioneers and explorers as Champlain, Jolliet and Marquette, La Salle, d'Iberville and La Vérendrye, who mapped out in North America a French Empire which covered in area eight of the nine Provinces of the present Dominion of Canada and several States of the American Union,

and extended south to the Gulf of Mexico and west to the Rocky Mountains—are continuing the traditions of their forefathers. They are living witnesses to the vitality of their lineage even as to France's indestructible soul and genius.

That period of Canada's history is replete with romance. The wisdom and energy of the Governors-General, the heroism of the King's officers and men, the devotion of the clergy, the zeal and fearlessness of the missionaries, the intrepidity of adventurers and *coureurs des bois*, the sturdiness and piety of artisans and farmers, have inspired poets and novelists. The men and women who by their fortitude wrested from its wild state the vast Empire which was then New-France left the deep imprint of their character both upon the land and the pages of history. They were indeed worthy of the part which it had been ordained that they should play in the New World.

A day came when the fleur-de-lys banner of France was replaced through Destiny by another flag over the valley of the St. Lawrence and all the lands beyond—from the Atlantic to the Rockies, and the sunny shores of the Gulf of Mexico to the frozen North—and Canada was thereafter to live and prosper under institutions which, through a strange play of Fate, had been given to England at Runnymede by the very ancestors of the stout-

hearted Normans who conquered Canada from barbarism and the wilderness.

Acute misunderstandings and unhappy frictions were bound to occur between the early owners of the land and the newcomers. It was certain, however, that in time harmony would prevail, especially when responsible government, based upon the principles of the Magna Charta of British liberties, would be established, guaranteeing equal political rights to all Canadians.

Contentment and national prosperity followed the passing of the British North America Act by the Imperial Parliament in 1867. It established a new nation. It marked the end of a century of civil unrest, and opened the era of Canada's amazing advance, in a short sixty years, from the obscurity of a colony to the glamour and influence of the Premier Dominion of the British Commonwealth.

The biographies, with historical notes, of our Governors-General, from Champlain to Vaudreuil, from Murray to Lord Bessborough, the present representative of His Majesty the King at Ottawa, should prove of interest to the student of Canada's progress. They explain our origin—that we are the offspring of the two greatest races in Europe. Of such ancestry Canadians may well be proud. And since *Noblesse oblige*, ours is the duty to maintain and enhance the best traits of our

ancestors, in order that we may build up a united nation, building the qualities which have made France and England the acknowledged leaders of mankind in the realms of political freedom, religious tolerance, and in the arts and science.

The present work is limited to the salient events of each Governor's tenure of office. Thus the narrative aims at giving a broad idea of the circumstances surrounding the birth, infancy, adolescence, and growth to manhood, of our nation. If it should awaken enough interest to induce Canadians, of English as well as French descent, to familiarize themselves more fully with the history of our country, then the purpose of this volume will have been achieved and its publication justified. For nothing could better promote Canada's national unity than a widespread knowledge of what our forefathers did in order to prepare the splendid heritage which we must in turn transmit unimpaired—and, I trust, augmented—to our children and their descendants.

For the compilation of this work I am indebted, and am pleased to offer my thanks, to Dr. C. H. Verge, of the Quebec Government Office, London, to whose erudition I am happy to pay here a well-merited tribute for his conscientious research.

L. J. LEMIEUX,

Agent-General for the Province of
Quebec in Great Britain, Ireland
and the Irish Free State.

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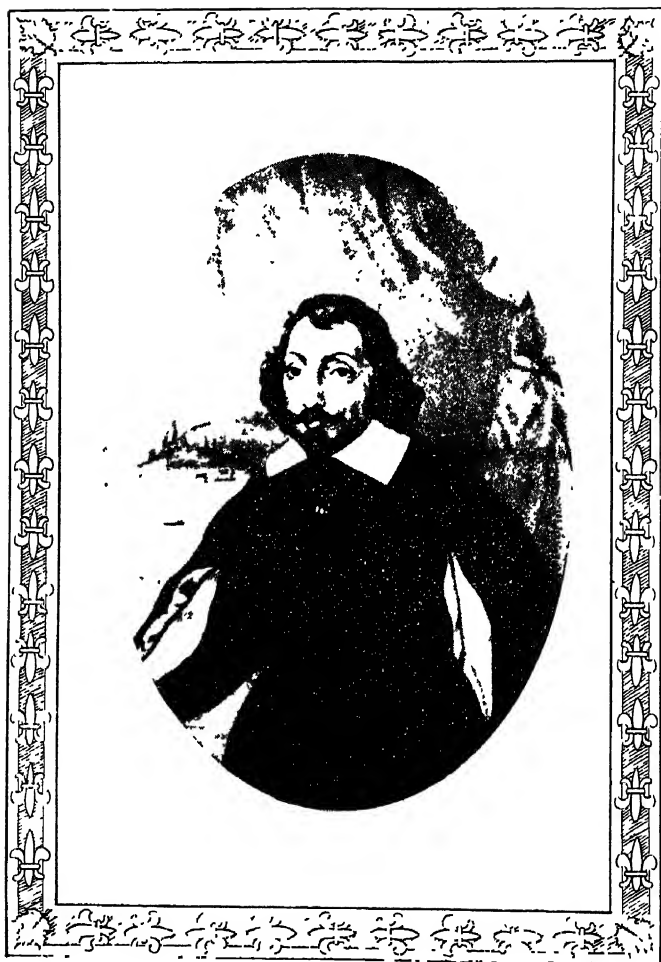
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FRENCH RÉGIME.



Champlain

(1st Governor-General of Canada)

1608—1635.

CHAMPLAIN

(1st Governor-General of Canada)

1608—1635.

FOR many years after Jacques Cartier's third (and last) voyage (1541-42) to the St. Lawrence and Roberval's unsuccessful attempt to establish a settlement there, no one tried to found a colony in Canada, though fishermen sailed regularly to Newfoundland and fur traders also visited the St. Lawrence. The possibilities of the region, however, impressed themselves on French mariners and merchants. Cartier had blazed the trail, but it remained for *Champlain*—sixty-six years later—to become the true founder of New France, his great service to Canada winning for him the proud title of "Father of New France."

Samuel de Champlain was born at Brouage, in the Department of Charente-Inférieure—

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former Province of Saintonge—, France, $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles to the W. of Rochefort, and now a small village with old fortifications, but in Champlain's time an important port. He first visited the St. Lawrence in 1603 in company with Pont-Gravé (an experienced fur trader of St. Malo), and the following year went out with de Monts to establish a colony in Acadia. They at first founded a settlement at River St. Croix (New Brunswick), which was transferred in 1605 to Port Royal (now Annapolis, Nova Scotia), this being the first permanent settlement made by the whites—in fact there was not at this time a single European settlement in North America from the Far North to the ancient Spanish town of St. Augustine on the coast of Florida—within what is now the Dominion of Canada.

Three years later, in 1608, Champlain founded Quebec. Sieur de Monts, a Huguenot who had done good service for the King of France in the late wars, was the holder of a patent issued to him by Henry IV. in 1603, under the terms of which he was appointed the King's lieutenant in Acadia whose bounds were made to include not only the Atlantic Provinces of Canada, but also the greater part of New England and a large part of the Province of Quebec. The sites of the present cities of Montreal and Philadelphia were within the confines of the patent. The foundation of the enterprise was a monopoly of the fur trade. Two years after the establishment in 1605 by de Monts and Champlain of their colony at Port Royal, the former's patent was revoked, and, relinquishing therefore his in-

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terests in Acadia, his attention was turned, on Champlain's advice, to the valley of the St. Lawrence. Having subsequently been granted by the King a charter which gave him the monopoly of the fur trade in that region for one year (from 7th of January, 1608), he appointed Champlain his lieutenant and fitted out, with the aid of his former merchant partners and associates, at Honfleur, in April 1608, two ships: the *Lévrier*, of 80 tons, under the command of Dupont-Gravé, which was to carry on the fur trade at Tadousac; and the other the "*Don-de-Dieu*," of 150 tons, with Champlain and thirty settlers who landed at Quebec on July 3rd.

In order to pursue his subsequent explorations, Champlain joined forces with the Hurons and Algonquins against the Iroquois and in 1609 invaded the latter's country, discovering the lake which bears his name.

In that same year 1609 we find Henry Hudson, the famous English navigator who discovered Hudson Bay, and his Dutch sailors (he had been sent out by the Dutch) ascending in his ship the "Half-Moon" the river named after him to the country of the Mohawks (one of the "Five Nations," or tribes, constituting the Iroquois Confederacy). Following up Hudson's discovery, Dutch traders settled at Fort Orange (now Albany, N.Y.) on the Hudson River and entered into friendly relations with the natives (Iroquois), establishing centres at Orange (Albany), Corlaer (Schenectady) and Manhattan (New York City), the first settlements on that island being made by the Dutch in 1614. From the two

CHAMPLAIN

former posts they traded with the Iroquois, who exchanged peltry for guns and ammunition and were thus soon in a position to contend on more or less equal terms with the French.

Champlain was above all a great explorer and geographer, and his main interest was in the discovery of the whole upper country (of Canada) and a possible Western Sea. He explored the Ottawa-Lake Nipissing canoe route to Georgian Bay and the Huron country, Lake Simcoe, the Trent River, and the eastern portions of Lake Ontario. Earlier reports of the immensity of the Western territory were verified by his inquiries, and, if he had failed, it is true, to find the Western Sea, he laid the foundations for future discoveries by making the Hurons' country the base of operations for missionaries and traders. His recorded observations contain a mass of valuable information covering a wide range with regard to the tribes visited, including their manners and customs, industries, religion and government, hunting, fishing and agriculture. His maps of 1612 and 1613 are also remarkable. In 1613 he ascended the Ottawa River for over 200 miles up to Allumette Island—opposite which now lies the town of Pembroke, Co. Renfrew, Ontario. At Muskrat Lake (also in Renfrew Co.), reached by a difficult portage after leaving the Ottawa River, was a settlement where corn was cultivated by the Indians and which Champlain visited. On his way (over the portage road) to this place—which was in June 1613—he lost his astrolabe, an instrument used in those days for making

CHAMPLAIN

observations, taking altitudes, etc.; and at this spot, on the old portage route, in August 1867, a farmer unearthed it, when it was found to be in an excellent state of preservation. It is a brass instrument of Paris make and bears date 1603.

Before leaving the Upper Ottawa, Champlain planted, on an elevation by the side of the river facing Pembroke, Ont., a cross showing the arms of France—a custom of the French explorers, as Cartier's narrative tells us.

During the summer of 1615 Champlain went up the Ottawa River again, but this time as far as the Mattawa (a tributary of the Ottawa), then up the Mattawa and through Lake Nipissing and down French River (*Rivière des Français*) to Lake Huron (Georgian Bay). Thence, passing through the western shore of the picturesque Muskoka district, the party finally reached, at the beginning of October, the eastern end of Lake Ontario, by way of Lake Simcoe and the rivers and lakes leading into the pretty bay of Quinté (near Belleville, Ontario). This was the most important undertaking of Champlain's life in Canada.

In 1617 Louis Hébert, the first regular settler in Canada, was induced by Champlain to come out to Quebec (City) with his whole family. He was an apothecary by profession, but had already been in Acadia with Poutrincourt and had shown taste and skill in agriculture. His descendants multiplied so widely that there are now few of the older French-Canadian families that cannot trace their

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descent from Louis Hébert. By 1620 Hébert had ploughed his land in what is now the Upper Town, Quebec City, and he was the first settler to live by the produce of the soil.

He cleared the ground that is now the site of the Basilica, and that part of the Upper Town which extends from Ste. Famille Street to the Hôtel-Dieu Hospital there; and in the time of Champlain this part of Quebec City was known as *les labourages d' Hébert* (Hébert's ploughed land).

In 1608, at the time of the foundation of Quebec, Champlain and his men had established of course the first permanent colony there, so to speak, clearing the ground and erecting the first building, or "Abitation," on the site of what is now the Lower Town of Quebec City, and which at that time afforded the best available combination of facilities alike for defence, agriculture, industry and trade. On a map of Quebec and its surroundings for the year 1608, made by Champlain for his book of travels published in 1613, are marked the gardens of this "Abitation" and a piece of cleared land sown with wheat and other grains. In 1626 Champlain established a farm at the foot of Cap Tourmente (1960 ft), on the N. shore of the St. Lawrence, 30 miles below Quebec City, for cattle that he sent from the latter place.

In 1620 Champlain began at Quebec the construction of Fort St. Louis on the site of what is now Dufferin Terrace (Promenade) in that city, overlooking the St. Lawrence River

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and Quebec Harbour at a height of over 200 feet. He had it demolished six years later and a more spacious one erected in its place. Montmagny (2nd Governor-General) had it converted into a castle—which was called Château St. Louis—, this work being completed by his successor, d'Ailleboust; and as such it became famous as the official residence of the Governors-General of Canada till the year 1834, when it was totally destroyed by fire and not since rebuilt. Governor Frontenac had it pulled down in 1694 and replaced by a new Château completed in 1700. Under the British Régime it had undergone three restorations (1764, 1786, 1808-11) before its final disappearance in 1834.

Twelve years after the founding of Quebec by the French, the Pilgrim Fathers (74 men and 28 women, all English Puritans) coming over from Southampton on the "Mayflower,"—which called at Plymouth (Devon) on the way out—landed at Plymouth Rock (Plymouth, Massachusetts) on Christmas Day 1620, where they founded the settlement of Plymouth, and are regarded as the pioneers of American (United States) colonization. The English settlers who followed them in New England were a prolific stock and their descendants were the men who did most to set the political and social tone of the United States in its great subsequent developments.

In 1629 David Kirke (who was, contrary to the common opinion, not a Huguenot, but, in his later life at least, a staunch adherent of the Church of England), the son of a London merchant, who had been placed in command

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of a fleet commissioned by the King of England to capture and destroy any French ships it might encounter, and to uproot the French settlements in Acadia and New France, appeared before Quebec—where the small garrison was already in a desperate, half-starved condition—and forced Champlain to surrender. The latter and his soldiers chose to return home. The next day 150 Englishmen took possession of the fort and the British flag floated for the first time from its ramparts. Not long, however, did England hold Canada then, for by the Treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye (1632) Charles 1st of England restored the country to France and Champlain went back to Quebec the following year. But his end was near at hand, and on Christmas Day 1635 the “Father of New France” died in the city he had founded.



Montmagny

(2nd Governor-General of Canada).

1636—1648.

MONTMAGNY

(2nd Governor-General of Canada).

1636—1648.

WITH the new Governor, *Charles Huault de Montmagny*, Knight of Malta, came several families to swell the population of the young colony. It was during his term of office that the City of Montreal was founded by *Maisonneuve* in 1642, the latter being accompanied from Quebec by Governor de Montmagny himself on that special expedition.

In the summer of 1641 two ships sailed from La Rochelle to New France, one with *Maisonneuve*, a secular priest and twenty-five men; another with *Mademoiselle Jeanne Mance*—from Langres in Champagne, who founded the Hôtel-Dieu Hospital in Montreal—, *Father de la Place*, and twelve men. A third ship, sailing from Dieppe with ten men and three women, had preceded them. *Maisonneuve's* ship arrived at Quebec on August 25th, long

MONTMAGNY

after the two others. On arrival the colonists were solicited not to proceed higher up the river and Governor Montmagny expostulated with Maisonneuve and suggested instead a settlement on the Island of Orleans (near Quebec City). The colony had only two or three hundred persons, and would profit much by this reinforcement. Efforts were at the same time made to intimidate them by accounts of the Iroquois, who overran the country and were still about the Island of Montreal. Maisonneuve replied: "What you suggest would be good if I had come here to deliberate and choose, but as the Society (Société de Notre Dame de Montréal) that sends me has determined upon my going on to Montreal, my honour requires me to begin a settlement there, even if every tree in that island were to be changed into an Iroquois. But the season being already advanced, I will merely reconnoitre the post before winter with the most active men, and view the place where I will camp with all my people next spring." This answer so fully satisfied Montmagny that he himself, with Father Vimont, Superior of the Jesuit College at Quebec, accompanied Maisonneuve up the river, and on October 15, 1641, they took formal possession of the island in the name of the Company of Montreal, and returned to winter in Quebec.

On May 8th of the following spring—1642—Maisonneuve and his party sailed from Sillery (near Quebec City) in a pinnace and a lighter and reached the coveted island on the 18th of the same month. On the riverside they all heard, with great devotion, the first Mass on

MONTMAGNY

the site of the present city of Montreal, celebrated by Father Vimont. The few words he then said to the doughty pioneers have become historic: *"You are a grain of mustard seed that shall rise and grow till its branches overshadow the earth. You are few, but your work is the work of God. His smile is upon you, and your children shall fill the land."* Thus it is that the founding of Montreal is dated May 18th, 1642. The metropolis of Canada, with now over a million inhabitants, a centre of education, civil and religious light, trade and industry, is the realization of Father Vimont's prophetic words.

Until the close of the 17th century Montreal—or Ville Marie as it was christened in 1642—had a hard struggle for life. Maisonneuve's designs had taken the Iroquois by surprise; they were not aware till 1643 that a new French settlement had been planted on the Island of Montreal, and, being at that time the outpost of civilization, it was most exposed to the enemy. For over a quarter of a century the inhabitants dared not venture unarmed outside the palisades, and the workmen went to the fields musket in hand.

In time the Sulpicians, who had had so much to do with the founding of Ville Marie, gained the ascendancy in the religious life of the community. In 1657 four members of St. Sulpice were sent by Abbé Olier (the founder of the new order in Paris) to found a Seminary in Montreal and to take charge of the island. By this time the Company of Montreal had become weary of its work. Only five of the original members were left

MONTMAGNY

and in 1663 the island was made over to the Sulpicians, who assumed the liabilities of the Company.

In May 1639, Mother Marie de l'Incarnation, an Ursuline nun of Tours (France) and two other Ursulines, accompanied by Madame de la Peltrie, a young and rich widow who decided to consecrate her fortune and her person to the foundation of a Ursuline Convent at Quebec City, had set sail from Dieppe in the same vessel as Father Vimont, the new Superior of the Jesuits in Canada. In the same ship sailed also three Augustinian nuns from Dieppe, entrusted by the Duchesse d'Aiguillon, niece of Cardinal Richelieu, with the founding of the Hôtel-Dieu Hospital in Quebec City. The voyage was long and dangerous, the ship narrowly escaping collision with an enormous iceberg, but ended happily on August 1st. With a view of giving the Indians a high idea of the noble mission of these devoted women, the Governor (Montmagny) received them at the head of his troops, with a salvo of artillery, and solemnly conducted them to the church, where all the people joined in a joyous *Te Deum*.

In 1647 the first Canadian Council was formed, including the Governor-General, the Superior of the Jesuits, and the Governor of Montreal. This body had absolute control of the making and enforcing of the laws, and the administration of justice. For a time, three of the leading inhabitants were also members of the Council.

The Indians translated the Governor's name Montmagny, or Mons Magnus, by

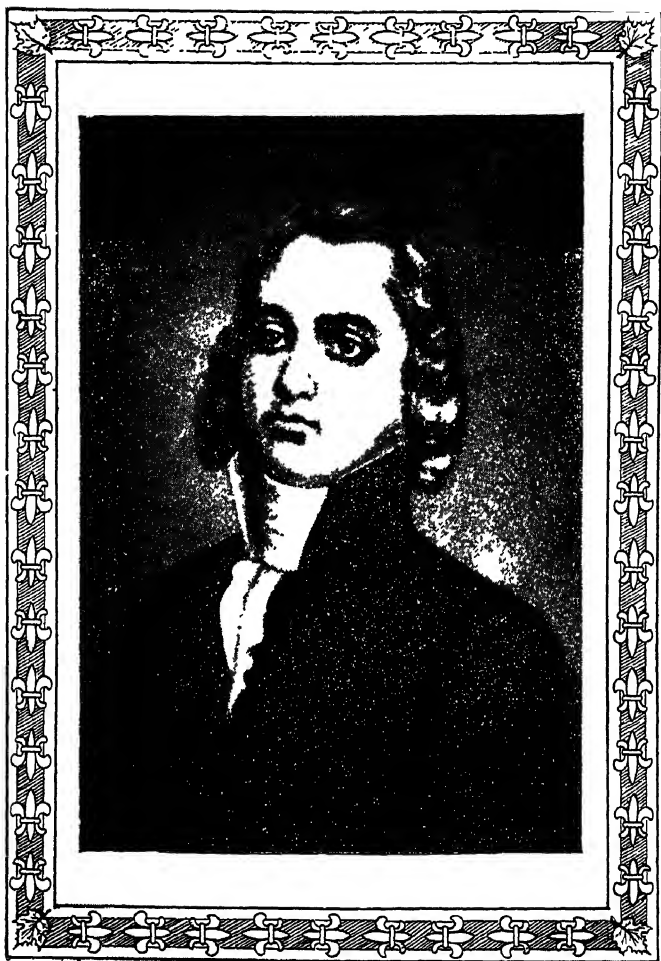
MONTMAGNY

Onontio—meaning “the big mountain” in their language—, a term by which they designated all subsequent Governors, the King of France becoming the “Great *Onontio*.”

One of the first projects of Montmagny, after having fortified Quebec, was to prepare a plan for the city, to lay out, widen and straighten the streets. (By November 1623, a roadway leading to the Upper Town had been made, less dangerous than that which previously existed).

The first horse to arrive in Canada reached the colony in 1647 and was presented to the Governor, Mr. de Montmagny. This animal was for a long time the only one of its kind on the shores of the St. Lawrence. There was no importation of horses until 1665 and further consignments arrived in 1667 and 1670, sent by the King of France, Louis XIV.

Montmagny was recalled in 1648.



D'Ailleboust

(3rd Governor-General of Canada)

1648—1651.

D'AILLEBOUST

(3rd Governor-General of Canada).

1648—1651.

LOUIS *d'Ailleboust de Coulonge* came over to Canada, it is believed, with the founders of Montreal in 1642. He represented that district on the new colony's Council at Quebec (proclaimed in the spring of 1647) before succeeding Montmagny as Governor-General in 1648.

The years 1648-49 saw the destruction of the Huron nation (allies of the French) by the Iroquois, their deadly, implacable enemies, with the accompanying massacre of the brave Jesuit missionaries—Fathers de Brébeuf and Lalemant in particular perishing under the most fiendish torture. Great zeal had already marked the labours of the Jesuits among the Indians. It was to the Huron country (south of Lake Huron, east of Georgian Bay—now in the Province of Ontario—) that these devout

missionaries mainly gave their attention, hoping that from the Hurons the gospel would spread to the other Indian nations. Great hardships were their lot—rude dwellings, poor food, unceasing labour, and ever-present dangers. The destruction of the Huron towns proved a death-blow to the Jesuits' expectations.

These attacks of 1648-49 broke the courage of the surviving Hurons, and from that date they scattered and disappeared as a nation—and with them the greatest hope of the Jesuits. Eventually, after various vicissitudes, some found peace by the side of the Detroit River (between Ontario and the State of Michigan, U.S.A.)—where they have been always known as Wyandots. A remaining lot of several hundred left for Quebec City where they were cordially received and given homes on the western end of the Island of Orleans, where the Jesuits had a fort built for their security. But even here the Iroquois in time followed them, and they had to seek shelter under the very guns of Quebec; finally finding a resting-place at Indian Lorette, a few miles to the north of the old Capital, where the Huron remnant still exists to this day.

In 1650, d'Ailleboust sent Father Druillettes, a Jesuit missionary, to the Abenakis Indians of the Kennebec country, now in the State of Maine, U.S.A., (it was he who, by the way, won for Canada the enduring friendship of the Abenakis) as an ambassador to the authorities of the New England colonies. The object was to enter into commercial relations with New England (then composed of four colonies) and also induce its governments to enter into

an alliance against the Iroquois. However, the authorities of the New England Confederacy in course of time refused to evoke the hostility of the powerful and dangerous Iroquois, and trade reciprocity between New France and New England failed in addition.

In 1651 d'Ailleboust was replaced as Governor-General by Mr. de Lauzon and then returned to live in Montreal—where he had been interested from the first—,continuing to promote the establishment and success of the young colony just founded at that place.

Mr. d'Ailleboust belonged to the "Compagnie de Montréal," formed in Paris in 1641, and which counted among its members many of the greatest names in France of that day.

D'Ailleboust died in Canada in 1660.



Lauzon

(4th Governor-General of Canada).

1651—1657.

LAUZON

(4th Governor-General of Canada).

1651—1657.

JEAN de Lauzon, born in 1582, was one of the original members of the Company of the Hundred Associates (*Compagnie des Cent-Associés*) or Company of New France, founded in France in 1627 under the direction of Cardinal Richelieu—then ruling spirit of that country.

The Canadian colony had been poor and struggling and in that year the famous French statesman, becoming aware of its wretched state, at last intervened by withdrawing all existing trading privileges and forming the new organization. The new Company was granted a perpetual monopoly of the fur trade, and a control of all other commerce for sixteen years, besides dominion over an immense territory—for the New France to which these exclusive rights applied included beside Canada proper (Quebec, Ontario, and the West of to-day), Acadia (Maritime Provinces), Newfoundland, and even Florida. The Company, on its part, was bound to bring out settlers in definite numbers. Not only was this association

a great commercial corporation, but it was a feudal lord as well.

Richelieu introduced with them into New France in a modified form the old feudal tenure of the mother country, with the object of creating a Canadian *noblesse* and encouraging men of good birth and means to emigrate and develop the resources of the colony. This was the beginning of that seigniorial system or tenure which lasted in Quebec for two centuries and a quarter.

The Island of Montreal, before the founding of the town of that name, had been conceded (in 1637), with other large seigniories, by the Company of the Hundred Associates to de Lauzon, who in turn made it over in 1640 to Baron de Fancamp and La Dauversière—who were truly the moving spirits behind Maison-neuve's successful enterprise of Montreal's foundation two years later.

The first Jesuit College had been inaugurated at Quebec in 1635-36 and when, in 1651, Lauzon was formerly received at this school as Governor, history relates that the pupils welcomed him with a Latin oration and French verses. In 1655 the College already had four professors, the classical course being then nearly complete.

In 1653 Sister Marguerite Bourgeoys came to Canada and at once proceeded to Montreal. At first, with the aid of Marguerite Picaud, she taught a few children, boys and girls; but in 1658 she returned to France and came back the next year with three Sisters, and the "Congregation of the Sisters of Notre Dame" was then actually founded by her in Montreal and

placed under her direction. The new institution soon flourished, and, apart from the mother house in Montreal, the Sisters of the Congregation established a number of convents in certain parishes of the three districts of Quebec, Three Rivers and Montreal.

During Lauzon's tenure of office the Iroquois had become bolder than ever and were literally terrorizing the unhappy colony. They were virtually masters of the St. Lawrence valley from the Great Lakes to Gaspé. Their audacity seemed to have no limit. "It was noon on the 20th May, 1656," says a narrator, "when the residents of Quebec were startled by the remarkable spectacle of a long line of bark canoes drawn up on the river immediately in front of the town. They could hear the shouts of the Iroquois warriors making boast of the murder and capture of unhappy Hurons whom they had surprised on the Island of Orleans close by. The Governor, M. de Lauzon, was perfectly paralysed at a scene without example . . ."

In the autumn of 1653, a peace, or rather a truce, was declared formally between the French and the Iroquois. The Jesuits, having been invited by the Iroquois to found a mission in their country, took advantage of the peace to establish one, but soon found out that their own destruction had been treacherously planned by their crafty enemies. The missionaries barely escaped with their lives; the uncertain peace was at an end, and once more the horrors of Indian warfare were the lot of the French and their native allies.

Lauzon left office in 1657. He died in 1666.



D'Argenson

(5th Governor-General of Canada).

1658—1661.

D'ARGENSON

(5th Governor-General of Canada).

1658—1661.

PIERRE *de Voyer, Vicomte d'Argenson*, was born in 1626. He at first studied for the priesthood, but forsook the gown to choose a military career. He had already been appointed Governor more than a year before, when he landed at Quebec in the summer of 1658.

As on the arrival of his predecessor, Lauzon, in 1651, he was greeted, among other formal receptions, with one at the Jesuit College, Quebec—then the principal seat of learning in Canada and a “complete reproduction on a small scale of the colleges of France.” A proof of how the Quebec College was then flourishing is found in the “*Relations des Jésuites*” of the time, where it is recorded that “the scholars were able to address him (Governor d'Argenson) in three languages, which pleased him greatly.” A small drama entitled “Reception of the Vicomte d'Argenson by all the Nations

of Canada, etc.," was also rendered on this same occasion.

In 1659—the following summer—Monseigneur de Laval, who, as Abbé de Montigny, had been recommended by the Jesuits for the Canadian See, arrived in Quebec as the first Bishop of Quebec and Canada. The Jesuits' suggestion had been accepted the previous year and Pope Alexander VII. appointed Monseigneur de Laval as Bishop of Petræa *in partibus infidelium* and Vicar-Apostolic of New France. In December 1658 he received Episcopal consecration from the Papal Nuncio, assisted by two other Bishops, in the Church of St. Germain-des-Prés in Paris. Bishop Laval brought about very important changes in the Church; his greatest work, however, was strictly educational. He founded in 1663 the Seminary (Grand Séminaire) at Quebec for the training of priests, and opened in 1668 a lesser School (Petit Séminaire) for the education of boys. This was at first designed for youths destined later to ecclesiastical life. It began its work with eight French and six Indian (Huron) pupils. After the English Conquest in 1759 this Quebec Lesser Seminary took over the classical course formerly given by the Jesuit College and continues in that capacity at Quebec City to this day. To these two schools (Grand and Petit Séminaires de Québec) in Quebec City was added many years later—in 1852—Laval University, which very fittingly bears the noble name of the real founder of the Roman Catholic Church in Canada.

During Governor d'Argenson's tenure of office, a determined attack upon the French establishments in Canada by the Iroquois followed the gradual renewal of hostilities on their part. This general assault was checked only—and the colony saved—by the gallant stand of the heroes of Long Sault (rapids near Grenville, on the Ottawa River), led by Dollard, *Sieur des Ormeaux*. He and his sixteen comrades, who bravely laid down their lives at that spot, by the obstinate resistance that they offered in a small palisaded fort which they erected on the south bank of the river at Long Sault, daunted the enemy so that it gave up the enterprise. About 800 Indians (Iroquois) joined in the attack, and everyone of the Frenchmen perished. This memorable event took place in 1660.

D'Argenson carefully studied the resources and needs of the colony and the character of the colonists. In one of his official letters he bears witness to the purity of their morals. This he helped to maintain by sending back to France a dissolute woman who had been allowed to take passage for Canada at La Rochelle, and by inflicting on the owner of the vessel a fine and the cost of the deportation. Boucher, local Governor of Three Rivers (Quebec), in corroboration of this testimony, says that in his time great care was taken to keep such women out of the colony.

D'Argenson returned to France in 1661 and subsequently distinguished himself in the Royal Armies. He died in 1710.



D'Avaugour

(6th Governor-General of Canada).

1661-1663.

D'AVAUGOUR

(6th Governor-General of Canada).

1661-1663.

PIERRE Dubois, *Baron d'Avaugour*, was Governor of Canada from August 1661 to July 1663. He had previously been French Ambassador to Sweden. He devoted himself actively at once when he arrived in Quebec to acquire a knowledge of the needs of the colony and visited most of the civilized territory under his jurisdiction.

Unfortunately, he could not come to an agreement with Bishop Laval concerning the sale of brandy to the Indians. The Governor and his officials were animated in this case by commercial considerations, believing that the trading interests of the country would be injured by the proposed prohibition—the fur trade depending so largely upon the consump-

tion of spirituous liquors. In the end the Bishop, who had gone on a trip to France in 1662, succeeded through the influence he was able to command there in obtaining the recall of D'Avaugour the following year.

A new voyage by Groseilliers and Radisson—two French explorers and fur traders of note—to the upper country north of Lake Superior, in 1661, was undertaken in opposition to the views of Governor D'Avaugour, whose demand of half the net profits of the expedition had been indignantly refused as extortionate by these *coureurs des bois*. So they slipped away clandestinely. When they returned to Three Rivers (Quebec) towards the end of the following summer (1662), accompanied by a fleet of several hundred canoes laden with beaver-skins, the adventurers found to their cost that they had not been forgotten by those in authority in Quebec. Their profit was reduced fully one-third by the exactions of the Company and the fines imposed by the Governor. This episode is specially interesting in that the treatment they then received drove Groseilliers and Radisson over to the English—which led to the establishment of the great English trading organization, the Hudson's Bay Company, and the diversion of a large part of the vast northern traffic in peltry from the Lake Superior and Ottawa River route to that of Hudson Strait.

Just before leaving Canada, Baron D'Avaugour made a report upon the colony in which he was the first to point out the desirability of the French seizing upon Lake Champlain

and the Hudson River down to Manhattan (now New York City), in order that Canada might have an open winter harbour to the south. This, indeed, was a farsighted policy, and had the French King (Louis XIV.) acted upon it, as he might have done at the time, the history of the North American continent might have been of quite another character.

As a result of the representations of Pierre Boucher, local Governor of Three Rivers, and Bishop Laval, the extravagant and more or less moribund powers of the old Company of the One Hundred Associates were withdrawn. The King resumed possession of the whole colony, some compensation being allowed to the remnant of the old company. The transfer from the Company to the King was effected early in 1663 and Crown Government was duly then introduced into Canada. The administration was placed in the hands of a Sovereign Council which included the Governor-General (commanding the army), the Intendant (controlling the finances of the colony) and the Bishop (ruling the Church).

The Iroquois were subdued, and, with the restoration of peace, the colony made marked progress. Many settlers were brought out from France and many discharged soldiers settled in Canada.

The year 1663 was one of many earthquakes and strange meteorological phenomena in Canada. A remarkable earthquake, the effects of which can still be seen on the North shore of the St. Lawrence River—at picturesque Les Eboulements (literally “earth-slips”), 68 miles below Quebec City—com-

D'AVAUGOUR

menced in the month of February 1663 and did not cease entirely until the following summer.

When D'Avaugour left Canada, in 1663, the colony's total population did not exceed 2,000 souls. After his return to France, D'Avaugour was killed in Hungary whilst participating in a campaign against the Turks in 1664.



De Mézy

(7th Governor-General of Canada).

1663-1665.

DE MÉZY

(7th Governor-General of Canada).

1663-1665.

AUGUSTIN *de Saffray de Mézy*, of Norman origin, held office from May 1663 to May 1665. Bishop Laval, who through his great influence at court had secured the recall of the preceding Governor, Baron D'Avaugour, with whom he had quarrelled, was asked to name a successor and his choice was De Mézy, a veteran in war, who had passed out of a somewhat reckless youth into a middle age of piety. But in spite of the latter, the new Governor-General soon fell into a quarrel with the Bishop.

The new Sovereign Council just established, in which Authority rested, New France or Canada having now become a Crown Colony,

consisted beside of its most important members, the Governor and the Bishop, of five others selected by them jointly and holding their offices at the pleasure of those two. These five councillors were not to receive any commissions from the people. The civil and judicial authority was therefore divided equally between the Governor and the Bishop, while the ecclesiastical authority was in the hands of the Bishop alone. De Mézy expelled from the Council three members who were under the influence of the Bishop and proposed to have the people elect new ones. In appealing to the people, although he did so perhaps from no love of popular government, the Governor made a fatal mistake, of which Laval was quick to take advantage. The French King would allow no election by the people, and, upon hearing from the Bishop of De Mézy's proposal, at once recalled the latter.

It is narrated that, during the height of the quarrel in question, the Governor once threatened to place Laval under arrest and actually ordered soldiers to the Episcopal Palace in Quebec to carry out this threat; but that these men, when Bishop Laval appeared before them, presented arms as a mark of respect instead.

De Mézy's death took place in Quebec—on May 5th, 1665—soon after his dismissal from office, but not until he had made his submission to the powerful Bishop.

With the advent of the new system of government in New France, and when the Company of the Hundred Associates, who appeared to have been robbed by their agents

in the colony, fell to pieces, the exclusive control of trade was given to a new and large organization known as the West India Company, or Company of the West, to which were given very important privileges throughout all the French colonies and dependencies in America, and whose monopoly lasted for ten years.



De Courcelle

(8th Governor-General of Canada).

1665-1672.

DE COURCELLE

(8th Governor-General of Canada).

1665-1672.

THE year 1665 saw the arrival at Quebec of three notable officials, the new Governor, *Daniel de Rémy, Sieur de Courcelle*, the first Intendant, Talon, and a Lieutenant-General in the person of the Marquis de Tracy. In the edict establishing the Sovereign Council of New France in 1663 there was no mention at first of the office of Intendant. But it was soon found out, perhaps as the result of the friction between the Governor and the Bishop, that it would be advisable to extend this office to Canada. The office had gradually developed in France, and covered the spheres of justice, police, and finance. Its creation in Canada resulted in a new division of power—exclusively placed for the last two years in the hands of the Governor and the Bishop—, for, owing to the nature of the administrative duties of the new office it touched at every point the most constant and practical interests

of the colonists. So the first regular Intendant in Canada was Jean Talon who received his commission and arrived in 1665.

The Sovereign Council itself, to which the Intendant was now added, was enlarged from time to time until it included as many as seventeen members. In their deliberations the members of the Council sat around a table, the Governor at the head, with the Bishop on his right and the Intendant on his left. Weekly sessions were regularly convened. The chief courts were held at the Palace of the Intendant.

At the time that Governor De Courcelle arrived the population of Canada was small, the large majority of the people living at Quebec City, Montreal and Three Rivers. It was at the risk of their lives that men ventured beyond the guns of Montreal. The fur trade was in the hands of monopolists. The colonists could not raise enough food to feed themselves, but had to depend on the French ships to a large extent. The Company of the Hundred Associates had been found quite unequal to the work of settling and developing the country, or providing adequate means of defence. Under the advice of the great Colbert, the King, young Louis XIV., decided to assume the control of New France and make it a Royal Province. The immediate result of the new policy was the coming of the Marquis de Tracy, a veteran soldier, as Lieutenant-General, with full powers to enquire into the state of Canada. He arrived at Quebec on the 30th of June, 1665, attended by a brilliant retinue. The Carignan-Salières, a crack regiment which had distinguished itself against the

Turks, was also sent as a proof of the King's intention to defend his long-neglected colony, and accompanied de Tracy to New France. They were the first detachment of regular troops seen in Canada. Their main purpose was to drive back the Iroquois and relieve Canada from the Indian scourge of the past decade. This they in the end triumphantly accomplished, securing thereby to Canada an interval of peace and opportunity for internal development. The country was thus enabled to realize what was the most hopeful and inspiring period in its history—the golden age of New France—under the administration of Talon, the great Intendant, and Governor De Courcelle, and, later, under De Courcelle's brilliant successor, Frontenac.

De Tracy—the Lieutenant-General—lost no time in preparing for war with the Iroquois and at once set about the erection of four new forts from the mouth of the Richelieu river up to Isle La Mothe on Lake Champlain. His first movement against the Mohawks—the most dangerous tribe of the Iroquois—failed, as it was undertaken during the inclement month of January. It was on this expedition, in which Governor de Courcelle joined, that the latter learned, to his dismay, that the British had become the possessors of the New Netherlands. But the second attempt, made in the following September (1666), was more successful. The Mohawk towns were destroyed by a force of 1,300, comprising 600 Canadians, 600 Regulars, and 100 Indians, led by De Tracy and De Courcelle, which penetrated the enemy's forests.

The Iroquois ("Five Nations" or Iroquois confederacy)—those formidable foes of the French—now sued for peace and no longer were the struggling settlements of Quebec to be exposed to the raids of a savage enemy. Canada entered upon the enjoyment of a rest from war, which lasted for a period of twenty years.

Having thus humbled the war-proud Iroquois, De Tracy returned to France, leaving De Courcelle and Talon to govern the country. Talon was an able official, and entered with zeal upon the task of making Canada a prosperous colony. He built a ship at the King's expense, in order to teach the people to build for themselves. He sent out engineers to search for coal, lead, copper, and other minerals. He set the example of making tar, woollen cloth, and shoes. In 1668 Talon was forced by ill health to seek his recall, but two years later, fortunately for Canada, he resumed office.

Under the direct rule of the Crown the population of Canada was increased by an annual shipment of settlers. During the summer of 1665 two thousand people landed at Quebec. Real settlers were sent out, and horses and sheep were supplied by the home government. Most of the soldiers of the Carignan regiment, which had returned to France, were sent out again, and on receiving their discharge became settlers. Rewards were given to actual settlers. For instance 1500 *livres* were given to one officer who had married and taken up an estate in the country.

Each soldier who settled was promised a grant of land and one hundred *livres*. Later, girls were sent out from France to become the wives of the settlers, care being taken to choose mostly members of the peasant class who could withstand the hardships of life in a new country. In order to encourage marriage, bounties were offered, and fathers who neglected to have their children married at an early age were fined. Bachelors were discouraged by Talon's order that no unmarried man should hunt, fish, or trade with the Indians. To parents of ten children was granted a pension of 300 *livres* a year; to those with twelve one of 400 *livres*.

In the upper part of the colony, which was most exposed to Indian attacks, the settlements took on a military character. Down the St. Lawrence from Montreal to the Richelieu, and up the latter stream for a considerable distance, the land was bestowed in large grants upon officers of the Carignan regiment. They in turn divided their estates among the discharged privates of the regiment, who, under these altered circumstances, served in the double capacity of farmers and soldiers. The officers, for safety, built their houses in groups and surrounded them with a palisade. In the neighbourhood of Quebec City, where the settlers were less exposed to danger, the houses were scattered along the St. Lawrence river front, the narrowness of the farms bringing them close together. This line of homes, as distinguished from a village, was called a *côte*. So commonly did the settlers build upon the river front, that a traveller, it was said, could see

every house in Canada by paddling up the St. Lawrence and the Richelieu.

Under De Courcelle's administration took place the early wanderings in the West of La Salle and Father Marquette. This Governor's great merit was to have understood and justly appreciated Intendant Talon's creative genius and seconded in every way his economic work.

De Courcelle returned to France in 1672 and died in 1698.

Probably the most interesting feature of the immigration from France to Quebec which took place in the summer of 1665 (in a few weeks more than 2,000 persons arrived, among them being Governor De Courcelle) was the number of young women as wives for the bachelors—as the future mothers of a Canadian people.

These were quickly married. Two hundred more came the following year; contingents of future wives poured in each spring. It is estimated that a thousand young women left France for Canada between 1665 and 1673. Only daughters of peasants, healthy and accustomed to field-work, were sought as partners for the settlers, except for the noblemen in the colony—mostly officers—for whom suitable wives were desired. But the less refined were in greater demand. The future mothers of Canada were selected with the utmost care as to their moral character.

This process of selection in France and the arrival of the brides in Quebec have been strikingly illustrated by a Canadian artist, C. W. Jefferys, in the two pictures reproduced herewith.



"Louis XIV. sends the Brides to Canada"
(from a water-colour by C. W. Jefferys.*)



"Arrival of the Brides at Quebec"
(from a water-colour by C. W. Jefferys.)

**C. W. Jefferys. Ex-President of the Ontario Society of Artists, was born in Rochester, England, 1869, but came to Canada early in life. He is best known as an artist in black and white, but has painted Canadian pioneer life effectively*



Frontenac

(9th and 12th Governor-General of Canada).

1st Term: 1672—1682

2nd Term: 1689—1698.

FRONTENAC

(9th and 12th Governor-General of Canada).

1st Term: 1672—1682

2nd Term: 1689—1698.

LOUIS *de Buade, Count de Frontenac*, who succeeded De Courcelle as Governor, was the strongest ruler Canada had seen since the death of Champlain. Frontenac was the descendant of an ancient French family, and had early shown a strong desire to become a soldier. This desire was fully gratified by active service in Holland. At 19 he was Colonel of a regiment and at 26 a Brigadier-General. After a brilliant career in the army he was appointed Governor of New France. He was then 52 years of age and retained the keen fiery energy of his youth. A man of action, he was delighted with the scene of his new work. "I never," he wrote, "saw anything more superb than the position of Quebec. It could not be better situated as the future capital of a great empire."

His restless activity was a source of strength and vitality to the colony, but it led him into

FRONTENAC

difficulties with the other colonial authorities and with the home government. Very soon after assuming office he sought to enhance his own dignity by introducing into Canada a moribund institution of France known as the "States General." This was discountenanced by both Bishop Laval and the Intendant Talon. The latter in fact absented himself from the ceremony and shortly afterwards departed for France. When the proceedings were reported to the home government, the minister (Colbert) very decidedly threw cold water on Frontenac's attempt to glorify the King through himself.

Owing to the industrial policy and activities that Talon had initiated, the progress of the colony was now very marked and was the occasion for no little apprehension in the adjoining British colonies. It was therefore natural that Frontenac should feel the importance of his position. It must not be forgotten that he was Governor and Lieutenant-General of all the dominions of France in North America. The local Governors of Acadia and Newfoundland were required to report to him and were subject to his orders.

In 1675 Duchesneau succeeded Talon as Intendant.

In order to control the Iroquois and to attract the trade of the upper lakes, Frontenac built Fort Frontenac, now Kingston (Ontario). Here the Iroquois were invited to meet the great "*Onontio*,"* as the Governor was called. Frontenac fondled the children, feasted the squaws, and won over the warriors with lavish gifts. Yet there was no lack of firmness in his

*See page 13 under *Montmagny*.

FRONTENAC

manner, as may be gathered from his address: "Children, Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas*, I am glad to see you here, where I have had a fire lighted for you to smoke by, and for me to talk to you. You have done well, my children, to obey the command of your Father. Take courage; you will hear his word, which is full of peace and tenderness. For do not think that I have come for war. My mind is full of peace." Then, in a warning voice, he continued: "If your Father can come so far, with so great a force, through such dangerous rapids, merely to make you a visit of pleasure and friendship, what should he do if you should awaken his anger, and make it necessary to punish his disobedient children?" The Iroquois departed from the council deeply impressed by the "Onontio's" mingled kindness and firmness.

Frontenac's first quarrel was with Perrot, Governor of Montreal, whom he summoned to appear at Quebec and caused to be put in prison. The next dispute—a prolonged and acrimonious one—was between the Governor-General and the new Intendant Duchesneau, their rivalry in authority at the Council becoming keenest in connexion with the fur trade. Duchesneau wrote home charging Frontenac with having *coureurs des bois* in his employ, and thus making illegal gains out of the fur trade. Frontenac brought similar charges against the Intendant. At length the King, becoming impatient at such continual discord, recalled both officials.

*The "Five Nations," or tribes, constituting the Iroquois Confederacy.

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It was during Frontenac's first term of office that—in 1673—the Mississippi River was discovered by two young Canadians, Louis Jolliet, the son of a humble wagon-maker, and Jacques Marquette (*Père Marquette*), a Jesuit priest. Then followed the wider explorations of La Salle, that gallant adventurer, and it was through Frontenac's aid that he was at last able to undertake his western explorations. Of all the men who sacrificed ease, and in some cases even life, to the service of France in the West, probably the most devoted was La Salle. Undaunted by two failures, he finally made his way down the Mississippi to its mouth, and in April 1682 the waters of the Gulf of Mexico burst upon his view. Rearing a column which bore the royal arms of France, La Salle formally took possession of the surrounding country and named it Louisiana in honour of his King, Louis XIV. On his return to France he was loaded with honours and hailed as one of the greatest discoverers of the age. Sad indeed, however, was the fate of La Salle. Five years later, in an attempt to found a colony at the mouth of the great river he had explored, he was found foully murdered by one of his own men, and his body left lying upon the open prairie, the prey of bird and beast.

After Denonville—the 11th Governor-General of Canada—had been recalled in 1689, the King of France turned to Frontenac, who, in spite of his 70 years, again assumed the burden of office. During Denonville's administration the Iroquois peril had assumed

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an alarming aspect. Their tribes' hostility had put a stop to the fur trade for two years, and as a result famine threatened the unfortunate colony. The enemy were everywhere, usually in small bands, seeking some straggling victim. The fields were abandoned, while the settlers sought safety in the forts. Frontenac was therefore warmly welcomed on his second arrival at Quebec. He lost no time in proceeding to Montreal where he found affairs in the utmost confusion, through the boldness of the Iroquois, and the people in a panic. To his disgust he learned that Denonville had given an order for the destruction of Fort Frontenac. The Governor then planned an attack upon the New Englanders. In 1690 three war parties were fitted out: one to attack Albany (with New York as an ultimate objective), a second the border of New Hampshire, a third that of Maine. The first named raid was undertaken in the depth of winter and left Montreal on its long tramp up the Richelieu River and Lake Champlain. It proved very arduous, so it was diverted from Albany to the little town of Schenectady (N.Y.). The latter was taken by surprise and destroyed, and captives carried off by the victors. The other two raids were equally successful. The English colonists were then thoroughly aroused, and knowing that Canada was being vigorously attacked by the Iroquois—their allies in war—from the west, chose this opportunity for an attack upon the Eastern settlements of New France by sea. In the autumn of 1690, a naval expedition under Phips—who had earlier in the season taken

FRONTENAC

Port Royal in Acadia—sailed from Boston (Mass.) with the object of capturing Quebec. Frontenac, however, had put his chief town in an excellent state of defence and employed his troops and artillery, recently received from France, to the best possible advantage. Phips's fleet, consisting of 32 vessels—including several men-of-war—and carrying about 2,000 sailors and soldiers, appeared in the middle of October of that year off Quebec. As soon as it came to an anchorage, just below the town, the English commander at once despatched a messenger to present a letter to Frontenac, demanding the surrender of the fort. The officer was not kept waiting long. "I will answer your general," cried Frontenac, "only by the mouths of my cannon, that he may learn that a man like me is not to be summoned after this fashion. Let him do his best, I will do mine."

If Phips looked for any such easy capture of the Canadian stronghold as fell to the lot of Kirke, he was doomed to disappointment. He was soon forced to raise the siege and considered it his only prudent course to return to Boston. The French had lost very few men by the cannonading and in the skirmishing on the St. Charles river, and celebrated their victory with great enthusiasm. Religious processions marched through the streets to the Cathedral and churches. *Te Deums* were chanted, the colonial admiral's flag, which had been cut down by a lucky shot from the fort, was borne aloft in triumph, a new church, erected two years previously in the Lower Town of Quebec City, close to the site of

Champlain's original "Abitation," was consecrated to *Notre Dame de la Victoire*, and a medal was struck in Paris in commemoration of the event. In Boston the people received with dismay the news of the failure of an expedition which had ended so ignobly and involved them so heavily in debt.

The preparations which the New Englanders had made for an attack upon Montreal, by way of Lake Champlain, with the help of the Iroquois, proved for them equally unfortunate.

The next four years were filled with border warfare, in which both sides suffered. The Iroquois continued to make their deadly raids upon the outlying settlements, but, as their very success rendered them careless, they often drew down upon themselves severe punishment. In this period of distress and danger, it was the settlers of the upper St. Lawrence, between Montreal and Three Rivers, who suffered most. Every precaution was taken against sudden attack. The farmers worked together, passing in a body from one field to another, and were often guarded by detachments of soldiers. At night all took refuge in the nearest fort. The story of an incident of this period reads like a romance. About 20 miles below Montreal, on the St. Lawrence, lay the *Seigneurie* (Seignior) of Verchères, which, in the absence of the *seigneur*, had been left in charge of two soldiers, two boys, an old man, and a few women and children. Madeleine, the 14 years old daughter of the *seigneur*, standing one morning near the river, was suddenly startled by the cry of a hired man: "Run, Mademoiselle, run! Here come the

Iroquois!" The maiden ran for the fort with the bullets whistling about her head, and closed and barred the gate. All within were panic-stricken, the women crying. Madeleine alone was calm. Assuming command, she was day and night, for a week, on the watch against surprise by the Iroquois, who were entirely deceived by her actions, and supposed the fort was held by a garrison. At last a reinforcement came to the succour of the brave girl and the Indians retreated. The courage displayed by this Canadian heroine is an evidence of that shown by the people of Canada generally under the trying circumstances that so constantly surrounded them throughout the whole of the French régime. The struggle between the French and the English colonists spread to Acadia, Newfoundland and Hudson Bay. D'Iberville was the greatest champion of the French cause. No man did more to uphold the power of France in North America. In Acadia he captured the fort at Pemaquid (in the present State of Maine) which had been built by the English colonists to restrain the Abenakis Indians, who occupied this territory, and were allies of the French. In Newfoundland he seized every English settlement. He was the best man, therefore, to take charge of the fleet which had been fitted out for an attack upon Fort Nelson, called by the French Fort Bourbon, the most important trading-post on Hudson Bay. With a single ship he met and overcame three English vessels belonging to the Hudson's Bay Company. The reward of this signal victory was the possession of Fort Nelson.

FRONTENAC

In 1697 the peace of Ryswick (Holland) between France on one side, and England, the Netherlands and Spain on the other, put an end to the war between England and France, and restored peace to the troubled border that lay between their American colonies. In the following year, at the age of 78, Frontenac died. The grief of the people was great. His entire career bears testimony to his remarkable ability in managing the Indians. At his death the French cause in Canada was almost triumphant. Frontenac was a brave and bold soldier, a man of infinite resources in times of difficulty. The Iroquois learned at last to tremble at his name. As is the case with all great men, his faults and virtues have been equally exaggerated. The Récollets, whom he always favoured, could never speak too well of him, whilst the Jesuits, whom he distrusted, did all they could to tarnish his reputation. He was the greatest and most picturesque of the Governors of New France.

During Frontenac's second term, which lasted for nearly ten years, there was now and then some friction between himself and the Intendant (de Champigny)—on matters of internal government—and between himself and the Bishop (Mgr. De Saint-Vallier) and the Jesuits with respect to amusements, which the clergy always discountenanced.

Following Talon's example, Frontenac parcelled out large areas of land into seigniories. French-Canadian society, as far as the conditions of the country allowed, was being modelled at that time after the feudal system

which flourished in Europe in the 11th, 12th and 13th centuries. The object was to create a Canadian, or Colonial, *noblesse*, or aristocracy, while establishing an easy system of land division among settlers. The *seigneur*, as the suzerain was called in Canada, received his land from the King, or Crown, as a fief or feud, became his vassal, and in turn made grants to his own vassals, who were generally known as *habitants*, or cultivators of the soil, on condition of their making small annual payments in money or produce, known as *cens et rente*. They were hence called *censitaires*.



La Barre

(10th Governor-General of Canada).

1682—1685.

LA BARRE

(10th Governor-General of Canada).

1682—1685.

AS mentioned under "Frontenac," this Governor's first term of office ended abruptly when the King of France, annoyed at the perpetual and excessive contentions between him and Intendant Duchesneau—each having already been censured by the King for infringing on the authority of the other—decided to recall both in 1682.

Frontenac's successor was *Lefebvre de la Barre*, an officer who had served in the West Indies. The greatest difficulty which the new Governor had to face was the hostility of the Iroquois. The interests of Canada were at the time seriously threatened by the intention of these shrewd warriors to subdue the Illinois, Ottawas, and Hurons—allies of the French—and divert the Western traffic, which was pouring its

LA BARRE

wealth of furs into New France, in the direction of New York to the Dutch and English, whose carriers the Iroquois wished to become. La Barre was well aware how much depended on the protection of the Illinois and the fidelity of the Indians on the Great Lakes. Such was the situation with which the Governor had to cope. He undertook a military expedition to Lake Ontario in 1684 with the object of overawing the Iroquois, yet he managed to give them the very opposite impression. He virtually abandoned to the Iroquois the western Indian allies of the French, and being more interested in trade than in war, weakly accepted the terms proposed by the enemy and hastily retreated to Montreal. The Iroquois naturally regarded him with contempt and prepared to follow up so easy an achievement. As this policy made them still more insolent, La Barre was recalled and the Marquis de Denonville, an officer of dragoons, sent in his place in 1685. La Barre died in France in 1688.



Denonville

(11th Governor-General of Canada)

1685—1689

DENONVILLE

(11th Governor-General of Canada).

1685—1689

WHEN *Jacques René de Brisay Marquis de Denonville*, arrived in Canada in 1685, he found it was not only the hostility of the Iroquois which the French had to fear, but also the aggressive policy of the English Colonists. These laid claim to all the country south of the Great Lakes, and were seeking to gain a hold upon the fur trade of the West and North-West.

To add to the difficulty of the situation, the Hudson's Bay Company was drawing off the trade of the northern tribes. English and French were face to face in a struggle for commercial supremacy. The Hudson's Bay Company had strengthened its position by the establishment of fortified trading-posts on the shores of Hudson and James Bays. In New

DENONVILLE

France the fur trade was controlled by the Company of the North, whose members now resolved to destroy their English rivals. This resolution met with the favour of the Governor. In the spring therefore of 1686, the Chevalier de Troyes, at the head of a company of 80 Frenchmen, including Pierre Le Moyne d'Iberville and his two brothers, left Montreal for Hudson Bay. Ascending the Ottawa river, these adventurers worked their way slowly by stream and lake over the height of land. So sudden was their coming and so spirited their attack that the English posts fell almost without a struggle.

Meanwhile Denonville was preparing to strike a blow at the Iroquois, particularly at the Senecas (one of the Five Nations of the Iroquois confederacy), who were giving most trouble to Canada. Denonville's main force gathered at Fort Frontenac (or Cataraqui)—now Kingston, Ontario—while messengers were sent to summon the friendly Indians (allies of the French) and the *coureurs des bois* of the West. In all about 3,000 fighting men met at the appointed time on the South shore (now New York State) of Lake Ontario, and marching inland 22 miles, destroyed the town and corn supplies of the enemy. This, however, was a most doubtful triumph, since it left the Senecas themselves unhurt. The expedition failed even to cripple them, as they quickly rebuilt their town. Denonville had in fact overturned a wasp's nest and must now kill the wasps if he would not be stung.

The invasion of the Seneca country and the building by the French of Fort Niagara (at the

DENONVILLE

mouth of Niagara river) aroused the anger of the New York colonists. The Governor of New York demanded the destruction of the fort. Denonville had but little choice in the matter. Disease, caused by the use of bad provisions, had carried off all but a dozen of the garrison. The order was given to abandon Niagara.

About this time also, De Callières, then Governor of Montreal, suggested that the King might exchange some of the French West Indies for New York. The Minister reported, however, that it was not possible to make the proposed exchange at the time. Whatever opportunities there may have been at one time were doomed never to occur again. Later, when the hope of bargaining was past, De Callières advocated an immediate attack on New York. When Denonville himself surveyed the situation after his arrival in Canada as Governor-General, he, too, reached the conclusion that there was but one safe solution of the Western Indian problem, and that was for the French King to purchase the colony of New York from the English.

Canada was in a wretched plight. The hostile and crafty Iroquois was everywhere.

How ineffectual it was even to awe the Iroquois is evident from the *Massacre of Lachine* near Montreal—which took place in August 1689,—when a large band fell upon the village during a stormy night, burned the houses, butchered 200 men, women and children, and probably carried off at least 120 prisoners, before they left the Island of Montreal, where the authorities and people seemed paralysed for the moment. The whole history of Canada has

DENONVILLE

no more mournful story to tell than the massacre of this unhappy settlement of Lachine by the side of beautiful Lake St. Louis.

The French authorities soon recognized the fact that Denonville was entirely unequal to the critical condition of things in Canada, and decided in 1689 to send back to Quebec Frontenac, who arrived (for his second term of office) in October of that year.



De Callières

(13th Governor-General of Canada)

1699- 1703.

DE CALLIÈRES

(13th Governor-General of Canada).

1699—1703.

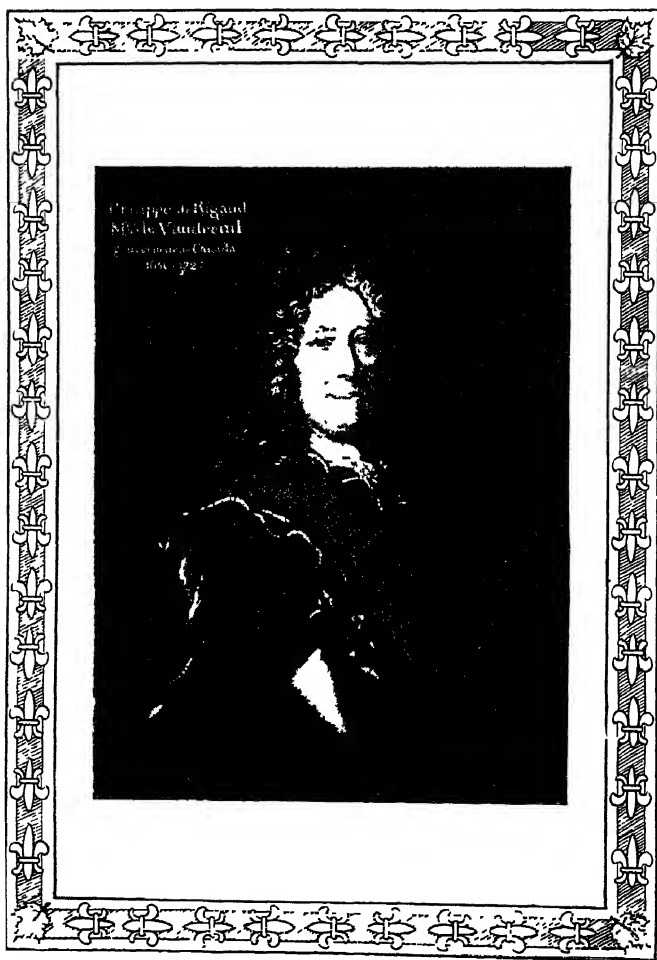
LOUIS *Hector de Callières*—an able and brave soldier—who was Governor of Montreal, succeeded Frontenac (when the latter died during his second term of office) and soon brought the Iroquois difficulty to an issue. The calumet was smoked and peace duly signed in a great Council held at Montreal in August 1701, where representatives of the Iroquois, the Indian nations of the West, and the Abenakis, assembled. From that time forward Canada had no reason to fear the Iroquois, who saw that the French were their masters. The trade with the West was now free from the interruptions which had so long crippled it.

The Treaty of Ryswick, signed in 1697, lasted for only five years. Then broke out the great conflict known in Europe as the War of the Spanish Succession. The vast ambition of Louis XIV, then in the plenitude of his power, had coveted the throne of Spain for his own

family, and brought him into quarrel with England where he recognized the Pretender as the rightful heir to the British Crown. Queen Anne had succeeded to the throne, and the war which was declared on the 15th May 1702 was thereafter known in America by her name. The struggle between the French and English colonists began anew. It restarted on the border between Canada and Maine and the principal actors were at first the Abenakis, allies of the French. Incited to war, these Indians attacked many English settlements, including Wells and Saco (Maine), even actually Haverhill (Mass.), not thirty miles from Boston, and the annals of New England tell many a sad story of burning homes, of murdered men and women. The English colonists, finding then the land route to French Canada barred by the Abenakis, retaliated at the point which was most easily reached by sea—Acadia.

It is worth noting again that De Callières, while Governor of Montreal, had suggested that the King of France might exchange some of the French West Indies for New York. He also protested at Versailles against the official encouragement given to the then prevalent exodus of *habitants* from Canada who were being sent West to found the town of Detroit—Fort Pontchartrain—(Michigan) and South as emigrants to Louisiana, while many *coureurs des bois* followed d'Iberville to New Orleans. Settlers could not thus be removed from the valley of the St. Lawrence, he said rightly, without serious danger to the colony.

De Callières died in Quebec City in 1703.



Vaudreuil

(14th Governor-General of Canada)

1703—1725.

VAUDREUIL

(14th Governor-General of Canada).

1703—1725.

PHILLIPE de Rigaud, Marquis de Vaudreuil (who must not be confused with the Marquis de Vaudreuil-Cavagnal, last French Governor-General of Canada), was, like his predecessor, Governor of Montreal when called upon to take up the duties of Governor-General. He governed Canada for 22 years.

Pursuing their campaign against Acadia, the English finally organized an expedition in 1710, under the command of Col. Nicholson, which captured Port Royal (Nova Scotia) and renamed it, in honour of the reigning sovereign, Annapolis Royal (a name that this historic place has kept to this day). As there was no other stronghold in the country, the fall of Port Royal carried with it the possession of all Acadia. The following year saw the failure of

a second British naval expedition against Quebec. A fleet consisting of several men-of-war and many transports, under the orders of Admiral Sir Hovenden Walker, sailed for the St. Lawrence. It was wrecked—through lack of reliable pilots, it is said—on the north shore of the river, which it was entering, on Egg Island (Isle-aux-Oeufs), some 240 miles below Quebec City, and ten miles below the mouth of Trinity River, about opposite Cap Chat (Gaspé Co.) on the south shore. After the loss of eight transports and nearly 900 men, the admiral decided to give up the project of besieging Quebec and returned to England, where he was received with marks of disfavour on all sides and forced soon afterwards to retire to South Carolina. While New England was sadly disappointed by this second failure to take Quebec, the French of Canada considered it a providential interposition in their behalf, and the little church near the water's edge in that city, which had first been named after Phips's defeat *Notre Dame de la Victoire* was now dedicated to *Notre Dame des Victoires*.

All this while the French dominion in North America was slowly and surely extending into the great valleys of the West and South. A fort had been built opposite to the Jesuit mission of St. Ignace (situated on the north side) on the south side of the Strait of Michillimackinac (now Straits of Mackinac, joining Lakes Huron and Michigan) and it was now also proposed to make Detroit—which had been founded by Antoine de la Mothe-Cadillac—the French headquarters,

despite the opposition of the Jesuits, who wished to have the mission field of the West in their own hands, and resented the intention to establish Récollets and other priests at the new post. As soon as the French established themselves permanently at this key to the Great Lakes and the West, the English practically gave up for fifty years the hope of acquiring the North West and controlling the Indian trade. French pioneers were pushing their way into the valleys of the Illinois, the Wabash, and the Mississippi. In 1711 Louisiana was made a separate French colony enjoying its own government, with Mobile as the capital, and included the whole region from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico and from the Alleghanies to the Rocky Mountains. By the time of the Treaty of Utrecht (see below) the Indian tribes of the West were, for the most part, in the interest of the French.

But Louis XIV was humbled by Marlborough on the battlefields of Blenheim (Bavaria), Ramillies (Belgium), and Oudenarde (Belgium), and obliged to agree to the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713, by which France acknowledged the Iroquois to be British subjects and ceded to Great Britain Hudson Bay, Newfoundland (subject to the rights of France in the fisheries), and Acadia.

While giving up Acadia, the French clung to Cape Breton, or, as they called it, Isle Royale. By fortifying the island they hoped to guard the entrance to the St. Lawrence, as also to have a convenient base for the recapture of Acadia at a later date. The south-east shore presented a rock-bound harbour easy of

VAUDREUIL

access and defence. Here the French planted a strong fortress, calling it, in the King's honour, Louisbourg.

During the years that followed, the people of New England found that the merely nominal possession of Acadia by the English was of little security to them while the French still held the island of Cape Breton and had the fealty of the Indians and Acadians, who were looking forward to the restoration of the country to its former owners. Both the Abenakis and Micmacs kept the English posts in constant fear.

The Marquis de Vaudreuil died at Quebec City in 1725. He was one of the most successful of the Canadian Governors-General and left a memory much venerated by the New France colonists.



Beauharnois

(15th Governor-General of Canada).

1726—1747.

BEAUHARNOIS

(15th Governor-General of Canada).

1726—1747.

CHARLES, *Marquis de Beauharnois*, continued the tradition of long administrations. He governed for 21 years. The interval, or interregnum, between the death (October 1725) of his predecessor, Vaudreuil, and the accession of Beauharnois to office (September 1726) was filled by the (first) Baron de Longueuil's administration. He governed for 21 years.

In the royal instructions to the new Governor, it was impressed upon him that the chief points to be observed were: first, the necessity for maintaining the colony against the designs of the English, and, secondly, to prevent the French colonists from leaving their natural occupations and betaking themselves

to the woods. There was little or no immigration from France about that period. The old enthusiasm for the colonies and their development had gradually died out, and the possible greatness of their American dominions received very little attention and no practical assistance at the hands of the French people at large. The colonies were simply regarded as posts of strategical advantage in the ever-widening conflicts between the European powers. The importance of Canada—apart from the fur trade—was due to that of the New England colonies, on which it was to be a drag or check. The lack of real interest in the local affairs of New France, or in its political or social future, will account for the general laxity of administration which was gradually developing in the colony, and concerning which there seemed to be at once a profound ignorance and a callous indifference which afforded no encouragement to unselfish and public-spirited officials, but gave excellent opportunities for mercenary selfishness and a cynical disregard of public interest. It was found difficult to maintain regular troops in Canada owing to the temptations to become settlers or to desert and join the *coureurs des bois*. In fact, it was only through the troops sent to Canada that any new settlers from France were received, apart from a few religious persons sent over from time to time. The Governor, Beauharnois, gave it as his opinion that the Canadian troops were not as good as formerly.

Beauharnois favoured the movement of Canadian expansion towards the West. For this reason he entrusted the discovery of the

“Western Sea” (as the Pacific Ocean of to-day was then called) to Pierre (Sieur) de la Vérendrye—a native of Three Rivers (Quebec)—a noted Canadian explorer and adventurer who was at the time commander of a little post at Lake Nipigon (Ontario, north of Lake Superior). With conscientious zeal and in the face of serious obstacles, but still greater than which was the courage of the valiant Frenchman, La Vérendrye proceeded to carry out his mission. He organized a small expedition which left Montreal for the unknown West in June 1731. La Vérendrye was accompanied by his three sons and the party reached the interior of the North West by way of Lake Superior and that string of lakes and rivers which extends from Thunder Bay (Ont.) to, via Lake of the Woods, Lake Winnipeg. From this point two of his sons pushed on to within sight of the Rocky Mountains (probably Big Horn Range, Montana, U.S.A.) of which they were the discoverers in 1743. Several trading posts were established between Lake Superior and (as far west as) the Saskatchewan River by the expedition, which it took quite a few years to accomplish. Owing to insuperable difficulties it could not succeed in winning its way through to the Pacific seaboard, but La Vérendrye’s perseverance in the face of great impediments had opened channels of trade running to the heart of the Great West. Not the least remarkable feature of La Vérendrye’s life in the West was his uniform success in dealing with the Indians. He possessed to a rare degree that power of inspiring both respect and affection which one

finds more or less among nearly all the French explorers and fur traders, but which was generally lacking among their English rivals.

The wars between France and England, however, stopped French trade in the north-western region, and the Hudson's Bay Company's posts at the north were the only signs of European occupation when Wolfe and Montcalm fell on the Plains of Abraham, and the fleur-de-lis was struck at the old fort of the then Canadian capital—Quebec City.

It was inevitable that the commercial rivalry of the French and British colonists should lead to a renewal of war. Channels of trade had to be protected by forts and the erection of these implied a claim to territory. Fully alive to the necessity of preparing for the coming struggle, the French began to strengthen their position by the construction of new forts. Once more Niagara was occupied. The governor of New York, not to be outdone by his rivals, built a fort at Oswego (N.Y., on Lake Ontario), hoping that the Indians, attracted by the cheap goods of the British traders, would pass by Niagara and come to the new post. This was what happened. The French in turn made a move which gave them a great advantage. On Lake Champlain, the military highway between the two countries, where it narrows down at its upper end to the width of a river, there was a spot called by the English "Crown Point." At this outpost the French erected a strong stone fort which they named Fort Carillon (or Ticonderoga).

The situation was ripe for war and only the pretext lacking. The French military governor

of Louisbourg (Cape Breton) then made a sudden move against Annapolis (Acadia) which was now a British possession. Despite the weakness of the British garrison and the support of the French by some of the Acadians, the expedition was a complete failure. This attack angered the English colonists and they proposed to capture Louisbourg itself—which, next to Quebec, was the strongest fortress on the North American continent. So in 1745 an expedition set sail under the command of Sir William Pepperrell, and the entrance to the harbour being first blockaded to prevent aid from France, troops were landed 4 miles up the coast and cannon dragged to the hills in rear of the town. After a siege of several weeks the French commander surrendered.

Beauharnois during his term of office protested at Versailles against the encouragement given to the exodus of French-Canadians to New Orleans (Louisiana). He was recalled to France in 1746 and died three years later.



La Jonquière

(16th Governor-General of Canada).

1749—1752.

LA JONQUIÈRE

(16th Governor-General of Canada).

1749—1752.

JACQUES *Pierre de Taffanel, Marquis de La Jonquière*, was appointed successor to Beauharnois as Governor-General. On his way from France to Quebec, however, he was made prisoner by the English in a naval engagement off Cape Finisterre (N.W. Spain), May 3, 1747—which caused the Count of La Galissonière to be sent out to administer, for the space of two years, the government during La Jonquière's captivity.

In 1748 François Bigot arrived as Intendant of New France (succeeding Hocquart) and held office till after the capture of Quebec in 1759. His corrupt administration and manipulation of the finances contributed in no small measure to the downfall of the French régime in Canada.

LA JONQUIÈRE

The French and their allies had been meanwhile inflicting upon the British borders all the tortures of Indian warfare. Within a period of four months, we are told, as many as thirty-five war parties made savage descents upon the enemy's territory. For two years longer the war dragged on, until, in 1748, there arrived the welcome news of the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. Both sides were to give up all conquests. As a consequence Louisbourg was restored to France, in return for Madras, the commercial post which had been taken by the French in India, where England and France were now rivals for supremacy. The cession of Louisbourg made the British see the necessity of strengthening their hold upon Acadia, and in the following year—1749—Halifax (Nova Scotia) was founded by Cornwallis.

La Jonquière died in 1752. At the time of his death Canada's population amounted to 55,000.



Duquesne

(17th Governor-General of Canada)

1752—1755.

DUQUESNE

(17th Governor-General of Canada).

1752—1755.

MICHEL Ange, Marquis de Duquesne de Menneville, succeeded La Jonquière as Governor-General of Canada. For four months previous to his taking office the colony was administered by the second Baron de Longueuil. In his instructions, received by Duquesne on his nomination, it was pointed out that at all hazards the English must be prevented from trading, or otherwise coming into contact, with the Indians of the West. As the English are now pressing into the Ohio valley, it will be necessary to attack them and drive them from the country. Hitherto the French policy with reference to the Indians has been to set one section against the other, in order to weaken them and prevent their becoming a menace to New France. Now they are well under the French influence and there is no longer any fear of their attacking Canada.

to mediate their differences and to secure their united and firm alliance with the French in order that their strength may be employed entirely against the English. He is informed, however, that the custom which has prevailed among the French of dressing and painting themselves in the guise of Indians in order to undertake scalping expeditions among the New England settlers must be discontinued.

It appeared from the reports of the preceding Administrator Longueuil that the English were showing considerable determination in their western movements. At this time the French claimed all but the Atlantic seaboard; the British all but the valley of the St. Lawrence. In 1753, therefore, Duquesne sent the Canadian officer Marin to build forts along the upper Ohio river. Scarcely had one of these been erected, when one December evening there rode out of the forest before the fort a young officer of the Virginia militia, Major George Washington—who now first appears in American history—bearing a letter from the governor of his state, warning the French to keep off British territory. Thus did agents, both of Canada and the British colonies, take formal possession of the West.

Early in the spring of the following year a small band of Englishmen reached the Ohio river at the spot where now stands the city of Pittsburgh (Pennsylvania, U.S.A.) and there proceeded to construct a fort. The work had hardly been begun when the workmen were interrupted by the sudden appearance of a

DUQUESNE

fleet of canoes manned by Frenchmen. The British force withdrew before the cannon. This fort, captured by Contrecoeur, was at once completed by the French and renamed, in honour of the Governor of New France, Fort Duquesne. This encounter, although bloodless, marked the beginning of war, and, so far at least as America was concerned, the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle proved a mere truce.

Nor was it long before blood was shed. Washington, while in command of a detachment engaged in cutting a wagon track in the direction of Fort Duquesne, came suddenly upon a scouting party of the French. Firing was begun by the British and the French force being outnumbered was compelled to surrender. Learning, however, of the approach of a larger force of Frenchmen and Indians, Washington fell back and entrenched himself at Fort Necessity, further South. Here took place a stubborn fight lasting nine hours which ended in the surrender of Washington to the French commander de Villiers, on condition that he be allowed to march out with all the honours of war—which was granted him.

Thus the western campaign of 1754 closed in disaster to the British cause. The loss of Fort Necessity left the country beyond the Alleghany mountains in the hands of the French, who by their success had completely recovered the goodwill and support of the Indian tribes and now held entire possession of the Ohio valley, where no English trader or pioneer dared show himself.

Duquesne resigned the governorship in 1755.



Vaudreuil (The Younger)

(18th Governor-General of Canada).

1755—1760.

VAUDREUIL (THE YOUNGER)

(18th Governor-General of Canada).

1755—1760.

P*IERRE de Rigaud, Marquis de Vaudreuil-Cavagnal*, the successor of Duquesne in the government of Canada, was the son of the Marquis (Philippe de Rigaud) de Vaudreuil who had been Governor of New France from 1703 to 1725. He was to be the last French Governor of Canada. The appointment of Vaudreuil the Younger in 1755 gave great satisfaction to the people. In the darkening days before the final struggle they remembered with pride and pleasure the administration of his father, which was perhaps on the whole the brightest period in the later history of New France. They naturally looked to him to redeem the country from corruption and oppression within and from powerful enemies without. Under the circumstances they were, of course, expecting the impossible, even if the second Vaudreuil had been the equal of his father in energy, ability, and sound-

ness of judgment. With the open outbreak of hostilities in 1755 the political history of New France virtually ceases. Thereafter everything is absorbed in the military operations and the commissariat system which furnished the troops with supplies and enabled Bigot (the Intendant) and his associates to plunder the colony.

At this time the British Navy contained over 200 ships-of-war, the French about half that number. France, on the other hand, had an army of 180,000, Britain only a tenth of that force. Each nation realized that supremacy in America was vital to its welfare and each was now prepared to send more aid to its colonists than had been sent in previous wars. General Braddock, with two regiments of regulars, then sailed for New York, and Dieskau, with 3,000 French troops, for Quebec. With the latter force came Vaudreuil the Younger, the new Governor.

In spite of this last-mentioned effort, it can be said that France at that period, busy with her ambitious designs in Europe, generally gave but a meagre, and too often half-hearted, support to the men who had dreams of founding a mighty French Empire in America. When France and England met for the great struggle on that continent, the thirteen New England colonies had reached a population of nearly 1,250,000 souls, exclusive of the negroes in the South, while the total number of people in Canada and Louisiana did not exceed 80,000. In wealth and comfort, too, there was the same disproportion between the French and English colonies. In fact at the time of the last war

Canadian commerce was entirely paralysed, farms neglected, and the towns hardly able to live. In 1757 food was so scarce in Quebec and Montreal that the soldiers and people had to use horse flesh.

The British plan of the campaign of 1755 was soon outlined. The French were to be attacked at four points: Fort Duquesne (on the Ohio river), Fort Niagara, Crown Point (at the head of Lake Champlain, with the neighbouring stronghold of Ticonderoga or Carillon, from which the French had for many years threatened the New England colonies), and Acadia. Braddock took command in person of the expedition against Fort Duquesne, but was surprised and defeated on the banks of the Monongahela river, near by, (battle of Monongahela) by a small force of French and Indians under Captain de Beaujeu. Braddock himself, after having four horses shot under him, fell under the deadly fire of the hidden enemy.

General Johnson, of the Mohawk country, at the head of a large colonial force, was chosen to lead the expedition against Crown Point. He was joined by a swarm of Mohawk (Iroquois) warriors. At the lower end of Lake George he met and defeated the French force led by Dieskau, who was himself made prisoner. Johnson was made a baronet (Sir William Johnson) for his services, though he had not succeeded in the original object of his expedition, the capture of Crown Point—which the French, like Fort Duquesne and Fort Niagara (which Shirley failed to reach after hearing of Braddock's defeat), were able to hold.

Meanwhile, on the scene of the eastern conflict, important events had happened. Fort Beauséjour, the strongest point in Acadia, near the present town of Amherst, N.S., on the frontier between New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, and of which the remains can still be seen, had fallen into the hands of the British, being captured by Monckton, who changed its name to Fort Cumberland. Several smaller French forts on the Bay of Fundy shared the fate of their more powerful neighbour. All Acadia was now under British rule.

The most memorable event of this time, which has been the subject of warm controversy, and immortalized in Longfellow's poem *Evangeline*, was the great expulsion in 1755 of the Acadians (French-Acadians. It was, and is still, called by them *le grand dérangement*) from Nova Scotia. The British authorities had felt that for many years the Acadians, while nominally subject to Great Britain, had in reality been in sympathy with the cause of France and had in some cases aided the French in war. When Halifax was founded it was thought a matter of necessity to bring the Acadians more under control and that it was no longer safe to allow this condition of affairs to continue. They had increased since the treaty of Utrecht in 1713—after which they had passed under British rule—to at least 12,000, living for the most part in the Annapolis Valley, by the Gaspereau and Avon rivers, at Grand Pré, etc., in the marshland areas along the headwaters of the Bay of Fundy generally, all in Nova Scotia.

It was therefore decided to require of them an unconditional oath of allegiance to Great Britain. Practically all declined to take the oath. But it must be admitted that the position of the Acadians was one deserving of sympathy, tossed as they were for many years between French and English. England, on the other hand, had to assert her sovereignty in Nova Scotia and assure its security seemingly threatened by the presence of people who would not declare themselves British subjects. It was under these conditions that Governor Lawrence of Nova Scotia—a determined and harsh military man—resolved to secure the peace and safety of the Province by a most cruel of possible measures: the removal or expulsion of the whole body of Acadians. All the circumstances, when reviewed in these later times, do not seem sufficient to justify the stern action of the men who took the leading part in this sad tragedy. The responsibility must mainly rest on Governor Lawrence and not on the Imperial Government, who never formally authorized the expatriation. Be that as it may, the Acadians were driven from their pleasant homes by the sides of the beautiful bays and rivers of Nova Scotia, placed on board ships and removed from the country. The total number of exiles, men, women and children, was about 6,000. Most of them were carried to the British colonies, being scattered here and there from Massachusetts to Georgia. Poetry and sentiment have not exaggerated the sorrow and misery of these hapless exiles, so ill-fitted to go out into the bitter world of hardship and destitution.

VAUDREUIL (THE YOUNGER)

In 1756 France recalled Dieskau and placed in command of her colonial troops the Marquis de Montcalm. With the commander-in-chief came the Chevalier de Lévis as second in command. Oswego on Lake Ontario and Fort William Henry on Lake George were successively taken by the French. In 1758 the British campaign aimed at the capture of three places: Louisbourg (Cape Breton)—which had been greatly strengthened since its restoration to the French in 1748—, Fort Ticonderoga (Carillon), and Fort Duquesne. Louisbourg, after some seven weeks' siege by the British, was taken by General Amherst in July 1758. Fort Duquesne was abandoned by the French to Brigadier Forbes and renamed Fort Pitt (now Pittsburgh), thus opening the West to the British and robbing New France of many of her Indian allies. On the march against the French fort of Ticonderoga (Carillon), however, the British army, led by Abercromby, in a skirmish with a scouting party of the enemy, sustained a great loss in the death of Lord Howe. The advance nevertheless was continued. Montcalm, who commanded the French force, instead of waiting the attack upon Carillon itself, prepared to receive the invaders at a ridge half a mile from the fort, where a strong barricade had been constructed by felling trees. Abercromby, without waiting for his cannon which followed him, flung his men against the face of the barricade. Then followed a frightful slaughter in which the British soldiers, tripped by briars and entangled by fallen trees, were shot down by the invisible enemy. 1900

VAUDREUIL (THE YOUNGER)

killed and wounded was the price paid for Abercromby's folly. This engagement is referred to as the battle of Carillon. Fort Frontenac (now Kingston, Ont.) was about the same time captured by the British under Colonel Bradstreet. Its loss was a heavy blow to the French, and the control of Lake Ontario passed with it from their hands, cutting off also their western posts from their base of supplies.

This was in 1758. The following year Wolfe began the siege of Quebec, which fell before the British after eleven weeks' resistance, at the battle of the Plains of Abraham—just outside its walls—on the 13th September 1759. Both gallant leaders of the opposite armies, Wolfe and Montcalm, were mortally wounded during this action, the former dying on the battlefield, while the latter breathed his last a few hours after being borne along by the crowd of retreating soldiers into the town. While the attack on Quebec was in progress, the news from the West and from Lake Champlain was discouraging to the French. Fort Niagara had been surrendered by Pouchot to Sir William Johnson, and the forts of Crown Point and Ticonderoga (or Carillon) on Lake Champlain had been abandoned by Bourlamaque.

The course of French rule in Canada was all but run. In 1760 Montreal capitulated; but it was not until February 1763 that the terms of peace, ceding definitely Canada to Great Britain, were finally agreed upon at Paris (Treaty of Paris, February 10, 1763) and the Seven Years War was brought to a close.

Vaudreuil the Younger died in 1778.

BRITISH RÉGIME.



Amherst

From the painting by Sir Joshua Reynolds

(Military Governor)

1759—1763.

AMHERST

(Military Governor).

1759—1763.

DURING the period of British occupation prior to the Treaty of Paris (1763)—which sealed the cession of Canada to Great Britain—the government of the country was vested in the commander-in-chief of the forces in North America, *Sir Jeffery Amherst*, who had in 1758 captured Louisbourg, the French stronghold on the Atlantic coast. In September 1760, one year after the fall of Quebec, Montreal was taken, Governor Vaudreuil signing the terms of capitulation. This completed the conquest of New France, and from that date Canada was for three years under what has been generally called the military régime; that is to say the colony was divided for administrative purposes into the three districts of Quebec, Three Rivers and Montreal, of which the government was administered by military chiefs: General Murray, Colonel Burton, and General Gage, respectively.

AMHERST

The instructions issued by Amherst to each of these local governors with regard to the dispensation of justice are interesting. They ordered each to take possession of his district, "governing the same until the King's pleasure shall be known, according to the Military Laws if you should find it necessary; but I should choose that the Inhabitants, whenever any differences arise between them, were suffered to settle them among themselves agreeable to their own Laws and Customs; this toleration nevertheless not to extend beyond what shall appear consistent with safety and prudence." Cases of theft and murder were to be dealt with according to Military Law, while for the ordinary disputes between inhabitants a less summary process was established. At the base of the new system were the French captains of militia, who, unless they objected, were confirmed in their positions and granted new commissions by the governor of their district. Above the captains of militia were the British officers in command of the troops, while the governor was the head of the system. Cases were brought first to the captains of militia to be settled according to the principles of equity and the accepted customs of the people; more difficult cases were brought to the commander of the troops, and such as could not be settled by this officer were referred to the governor.

The French had attempted to retake Quebec. When this town fell before Wolfe's army, the Chevalier de Lévis—second in command to Montcalm and a soldier in no way

inferior to him in military genius—was absent in Montreal, unfortunately for France's interest at this critical juncture, and an Army Council, hurriedly summoned, resolved upon an immediate retreat to the river Jacques Cartier—36 miles above Quebec. When, however, Lévis arrived, and Vaudreuil consented to march to the relief of Quebec, it was too late. Ramezay, who commanded the depleted garrison, had decided to capitulate in view of the ruined condition of the city and walls and the scarcity of rations. On the fourth day after the battle of the Plains of Abraham—on September 17th—the British batteries were ready to open fire within a quarter of a mile, and an unbroken line of men-of-war stretched in front of the town. Ramezay thereupon surrendered with the honours of war and the British marched in on the 18th. When the French army therefore was moving from Jacques Cartier river that autumn to recapture Quebec, it soon found the British already in possession and that the *fleur-de-lis* had given place to the red cross of St. George on the old citadel. The body of Montcalm was buried beneath the floor of the Ursuline Convent chapel—the only place of worship, it is narrated, that the siege had left with a roof on—in a grave which had been already partly hollowed out by a bursting shell. Many years later, a British Governor-General, Lord Aylmer, placed in the chapel of the convent a plain marble slab, with the following graceful tribute to the memory of a great soldier of whom English and French-Canadians are equally proud.

AMHERST

HONNEUR

À

MONTCALM

LE DESTIN EN LUI DÉROBANT

LA VICTOIRE

L'A RÉCOMPENSÉ PAR

UNE MORT GLORIEUSE!

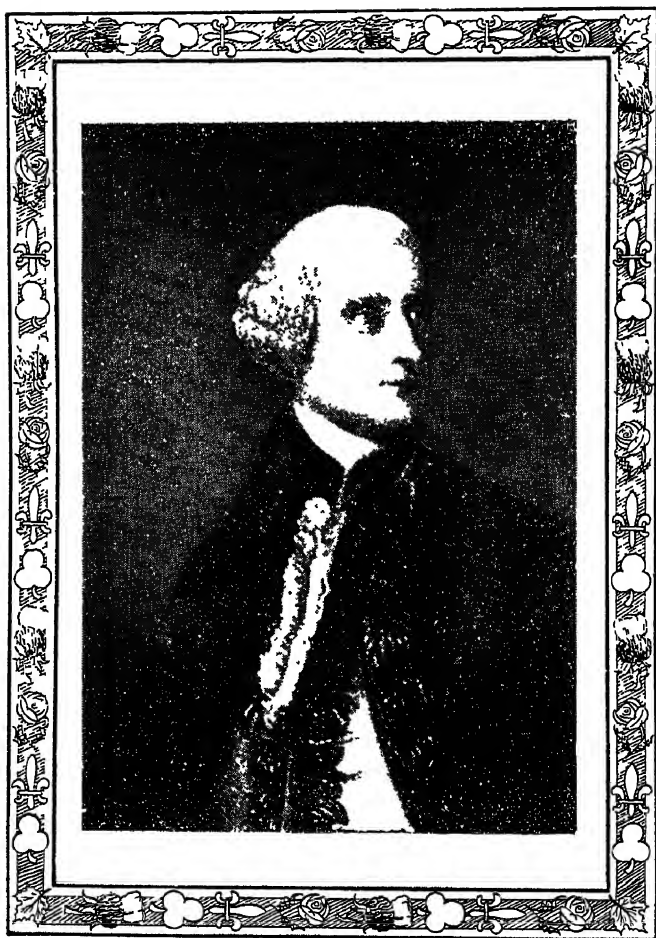
Wolfe's remains were taken to England, where they were received with every demonstration of respect that a grateful nation could give. They now rest in the church of St. Alfege, Greenwich. A great Frenchman and a great Englishman had consecrated by their deaths on the same battlefield the future political union of two races on the northern half of the American continent, now known as the Dominion of Canada.

Lévis took charge of the French forces, which wintered in Montreal with Vaudreuil. Early in the spring of 1760 they set out to attack Quebec which had been left in charge of General Murray. The British general ordered his men under arms and marched out to meet the enemy. He gave them battle at Ste. Foye—a short distance outside—(battle of Ste. Foye), but he suffered a considerable loss and was obliged to retire hurriedly within the walls of the town. The French now began a regular siege, and, as the St. Lawrence cleared of ice, both armies eagerly looked for help from the sea. When at last a ship was sighted every eye strained to see the flag floating from her masthead. It was English, and its arrival dashed to the ground the rising hopes of the

French and compelled Lévis with his army to fall back upon Montreal.

The western Indians, however, opposed British rule. Immediately after the surrender of Montreal, Amherst had sent a small force to garrison the western forts. The neighbouring Indian tribes regarded with disfavour this change of allies. They were assured by French traders and agents that their only hope lay in aiding to restore Canada to the French. They were told that the King of France was preparing a large army to recover Canada, and that the British would soon be driven out of the country. The Indians were the more readily influenced because of their liking of the French and their hatred of the less tactful British. The former had always treated them as friends and allies, while the latter had shown a disposition to regard them as a subject race. Under the leadership of Pontiac, one of their chiefs, they rose against the English and within six weeks, partly by stratagem, most of the forts in the Western and Ohio country had been seized and their garrisons massacred or reserved to be the victims of inhuman torture. News of the Peace of Paris, however, proved to the Indians that France had really given up Canada to Great Britain, and two military expeditions restored peace to the troubled frontier. A few years later, Pontiac, last champion of the cause of France in Canada, was treacherously murdered by an Illinois warrior.

The year 1763 saw the change from military to civil government, and Amherst had asked to be relieved of his command.



Murray

From the painting in the Dominion Archives, Ottawa.

(19th Governor-General of Canada).

1763—1768.

MURRAY

(19th Governor-General of Canada).

1763—1768.

IN the autumn of 1763 a proclamation issued by George III brought about a change from military to civil government in Canada. Labrador, Anticosti, and the Magdalen Islands, were joined to Newfoundland, while Isle St.-Jean (Prince Edward Island) and Isle Royale (Cape Breton) became part of Nova Scotia. Canada was made a British Province and renamed *Quebec*. In November of the same year General *James Murray*—who had acted since the fall of Quebec (1759) as local military governor of the district of that name—was appointed Governor-in-chief, or Governor-General, of the newly delimited *Province of Quebec* which then and therefore comprised all Canada. The commission to Governor

Murray contains an outline of the first written constitution granted to Quebec. In brief, the government was to consist of a Governor-General, an Advisory Council, and a Legislative Assembly. The Executive (or Advisory) Council was composed of certain officials and leading residents in the colony. Not the least important part of the proclamation of 1763 was that relating to the Indians, who were not to be disturbed in the possession of their hunting grounds. No private person could buy land directly from them, and purchase could be made only through the Governor-General and from the Indians gathered in council.

During the next ten years the country was in a troubled state, owing to a general uncertainty with regard to the laws. The "new subjects," as the French-Canadians were called, held that in the administration of justice their "ancient customs and usages" should prevail. The "old subjects" (or newly-arrived English-speaking citizens), on the other hand, were of the opinion that the King's proclamation had done away with these and had introduced British laws. The French-Canadians did not like trial by jury, preferring the decisions of a judge, a form of trial to which they had long been accustomed. The English-speaking citizens, in turn, objected to the feudal system, being used to holding property in their own name. Fortunately for the peace of the colony, Governor Murray conducted his government on such principles of justice and forbearance as to satisfy the majority, composed of over 60,000 French-Canadians; refusing to listen to the unwise and arbitrary counsel

of the 400 or 500 English-speaking "old subjects" who were desirous of ruling Canada. That the Governor did not admire the character of these "old subjects" may be judged from one of his letters to Lord Shelburne (who was President of the Board of Trade in 1763, then British Secretary of State, 1766-68), in which he speaks of them as "men of mean education, traders, mechanics, publicans, followers of the army." The French-Canadian *habitants*, or peasantry, Murray described as "a strong, healthy race, plain in their dress, virtuous in their morals, and temperate in their living."

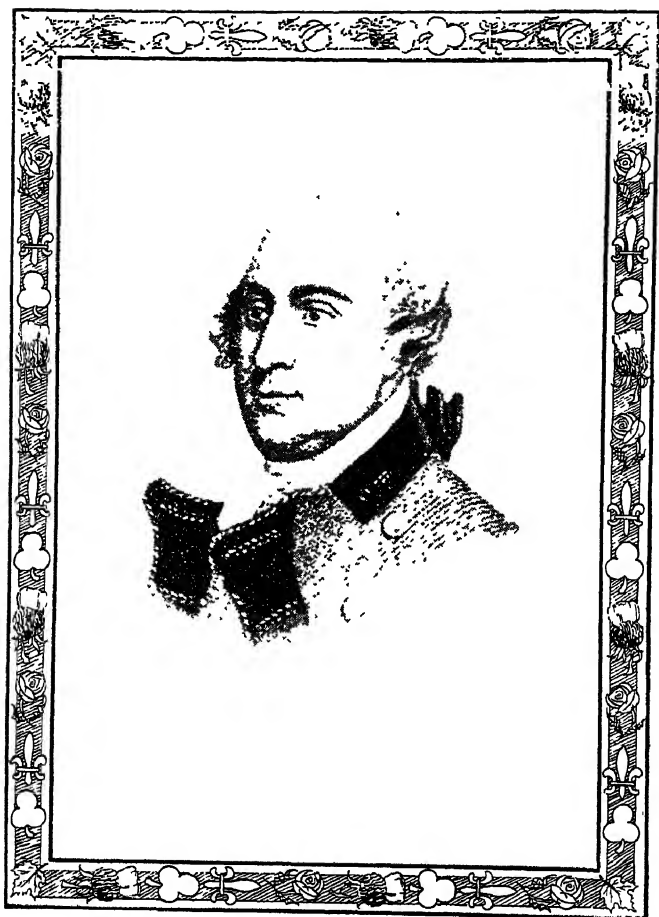
Until the destiny of the colony had been further determined, the activity of government was confined to maintaining peace and order in the community. The lieutenant-governors of districts received instructions that in the administration of justice the laws and customs of the French-Canadians should be respected and that, wherever possible, the former French magistrates should be retained. Murray had also allowed the application of French civil laws in the matter of landed property and the right of succession.

Opposition to Murray, however, especially on the part of the merchants, was becoming more persistent and a request was formulated by them for his recall. It was Murray's fate, of course, to have been placed in a position of extreme difficulty. But he was a soldier, and, above all, a man of strong sympathies. He was attracted to the French-Canadians, He sympathized with them, and determined to protect their liberties. Of them he had re-

ported officially to the Colonial Office, in his capacity as Governor-General, that they were "a good people, frugal, moral, industrious, and the bravest race under the sun."

The French-Canadians had responded to Murray's system of government. Besides, Murray's natural prejudice against the merchant class was intensified by their extravagant and intolerant pretences. He saw that the realization of their claims would interfere with the freedom of the French-Canadians, and he had already tasted of the troubles which their meddling could create in the administration. His training, his temperament, his personal interest, his view of the welfare of the Empire, made him a partisan at a time when none but the most skilled conciliator could have held the balance between opposing forces.

The course of events in the colony, notwithstanding, favoured the opponents of Murray and in 1766 he was asked to return to Britain to give account of the affairs of his government. Two administrators, Col. Irving and Sir Guy Carleton, replaced him during his absence in England where he still retained governorship until 1768, when Sir Guy Carleton was appointed his successor.



Carleton

From the engraving by A. H. Ritchie.

(20th and 22nd Governor-General of Canada).

1st Term: 1768—1778.

2nd Term (as Lord Dorchester): 1786-1796.

CARLETON

(20th and 22nd Governor-General of Canada).

1st Term: 1768-1778.

2nd Term (as Lord Dorchester): 1786-1796.

SIR Guy Carleton, afterwards Lord Dorchester, who succeeded Governor Murray, was a close friend of Wolfe and became the latter's chief of staff (as Colonel Carleton) in the campaign against Quebec in 1759 and where he performed important services. In the battle of the Plains of Abraham he commanded a regiment of grenadiers and was wounded. The discontent of both "old" (newly-arrived English) and "new subjects" (French-Canadians) rendering a change in government imperative, Carleton applied himself to a careful study of the condition of the Province. This led him to the conclusion that the French civil law ought to be retained in the country, and when the subject of a new Canadian Constitution came to be discussed in England he crossed the Atlantic in 1769 and

remained absent from Canada for four years in order to take part in framing the new constitution. He returned to carry out the *Quebec Act*—the French-Canadians' Magna Charta—which was the foundation of the large political and religious liberties that French Canada has ever since enjoyed. It was in 1774 that the Imperial Parliament intervened for the first time in Canadian affairs and passed the Quebec Act, which, besides constituting the French-Canadians' charter of freedom, greatly extended the boundaries of the Province of Quebec (then Canada itself) as defined by the proclamation of 1763. On one side, the Province was now enlarged to reach the frontiers of New England, Pennsylvania, New York province, the Ohio river, and the left bank of the Mississippi; on the other, the Hudson's Bay Territory, Labrador, Anticosti, and the Magdalen Islands, annexed to Newfoundland by the same proclamation of 1763, were now made part of Quebec.

The Quebec Act created much debate in the British House of Commons. The opposition in Canada came from the English inhabitants, who sent over a petition for its repeal or amendment. Their principal grievance was that it substituted the laws and usages of French Canada for English law. The Act of 1774 was also exceedingly unpopular in the American English-speaking colonies, then on the eve of that revolution which ended in the establishment of a federal republic, on account of the extension of Quebec's limits so as to include the stretch of territory long known as the old North West in American history, and

the consequent confinement of the Thirteen Colonies between the Atlantic coast and the Alleghany mountains, beyond which the hardy and bold frontiersmen of Virginia and Pennsylvania were already passing into the great valley of the Ohio river. In any case, the advice of Sir Guy Carleton had much to do with the liberality towards the French-Canadians of the now famous Act. In passing it the British Parliament was influenced by a sincere desire to conciliate the majority of the Canadian people. How wise their decision was events quickly proved. Within a year the French-Canadians were face to face with the temptation to be disloyal to Great Britain, and the fact that they did not yield is a lasting tribute to the wisdom of the statesmen who framed the Quebec Act.

The new constitution came into force in October 1774. It proved that in all matters of controversy, relative to property and civil rights, recourse should be had to the French civil procedure, whilst the law of England should obtain in criminal cases. Roman Catholics were allowed to retain their religion in all liberty, and their clergy to enjoy their "accustomed dues and rights." Further, they were freed from the necessity of taking any oath (such as the "test" oath—required of office-holders in England in those days) whereby they would indirectly renounce their faith. The government of the Province was entrusted to a Governor and a Legislative Council which had the power to make ordinances for the good government of the country. Sir Guy Carleton nominated a Council of twenty-three members;

both languages were employed in its debates and the ordinances agreed to were drawn up in English and French.

In 1775 began the American Revolutionary War and the Canadian people entered on one of the most important periods of their history. Their country was invaded, and for a time seemed on the point of passing under the control of the Congress of the old Thirteen Colonies, now in open rebellion against England. The military and administrative genius of an able English Governor-General—Sir Guy Carleton—, however, saved the valley of the St. Lawrence for the British Crown, and the close of the war for American independence led to radical changes in the governments of British North America. A large population, imbued with the loftiest principles of patriotism and self-sacrifice—the United Empire Loyalists—, came into Canada and founded new provinces, and, with the French-Canadians who were well satisfied with the just rule of Great Britain, laid then and there the basis of the present Dominion. During the revolution emphatic appeals were made to the Canadian French to join the English colonies in their rebellion against England. But the judicious administrations of Murray and Carleton, combined with the influences of the Quebec Act, evidently carried their weight in the balance. The attitude of the clergy of the Roman Catholic Church, led by the bishop, Monseigneur Briand, as well as that of the *seigneurs*, were steadily on the side of loyalty. In fact, the enemies of England were to be found chiefly among the “old subjects” (newly-

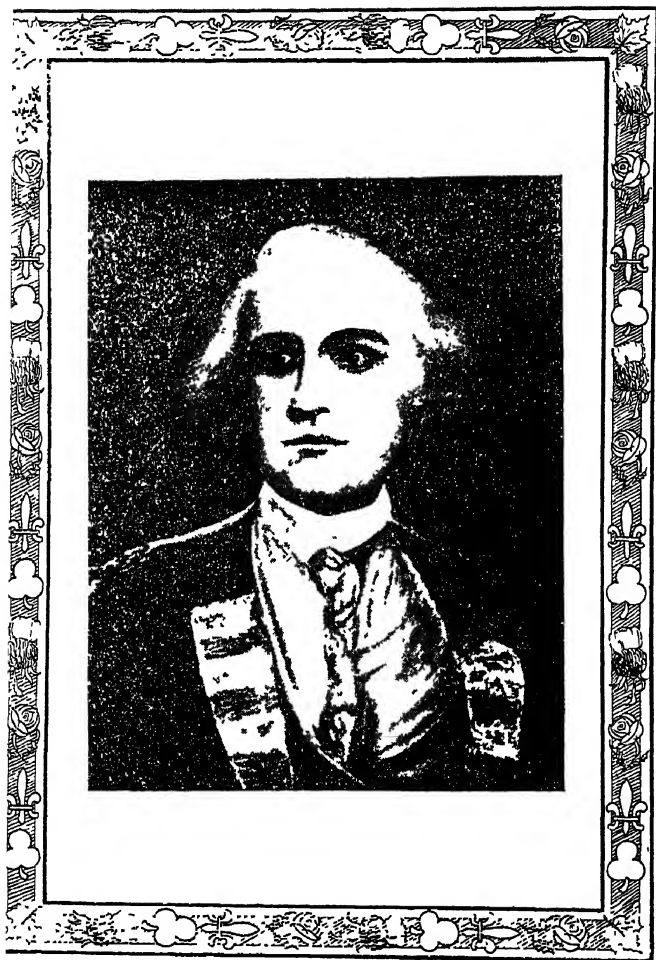
arrived English), who were still bitterly antagonistic to the Quebec Act, with its concessions to the French-Canadian majority, and who had attempted to obtain an Assembly in which the French-Canadians would be ignored.

Quebec City—the key to Canada at this juncture—, having resisted the temptation to be disloyal, was made the object of attack by the Americans at the very outset of the war. By the old Lake Champlain route the invaders entered. Already Crown Point and Ticonderoga (Carillon) had fallen, and in the autumn of 1775 the threatened blow fell. General Montgomery, with a force of colonials, captured the forts on the Richelieu river and advanced upon Montreal. This place Carleton had wisely abandoned to concentrate upon the defence of Quebec. A second army of invaders, under General Benedict Arnold, entered the Province by way of the Kennebec and Chaudière rivers. Montgomery and Arnold then joined forces before the city of Quebec. In view of the strength of the attacking forces and the weakness of the garrison, it speaks well for the generalship of Carleton that the invaders were foiled. Late at night on the 31st December 1775, during a heavy snow-storm, an attempt was made to seize the city by a piece of strategy; Montgomery marching from a cove nearby, along a rough and narrow road between the foot of the citadel cliffs (Cape Diamond) and the St. Lawrence river, to a barricade erected a little eastwards at the entrance of the Lower Town. Arnold at the same time advanced from the direction of the St. Charles River on the other side of Quebec.

In the assault Montgomery, his two aides, and a considerable number of his soldiers, were instantly killed. Arnold was wounded, and his followers, several hundred in number, surrounded by Carleton's men, were forced to surrender. All winter the Americans hung about the city, but in the spring the arrival of a British fleet compelled them to retire to Montreal and later to withdraw from the country altogether. British garrisons again occupied the forts on the Richelieu, and in a naval contest on Lake Champlain Carleton destroyed the Congress fleet in command of Arnold.*

At this juncture, acting upon the advice of an unwise minister, the King removed Carleton from military command and appointed in his place General Burgoyne, a greatly inferior officer. At the head of a strong force, the new commander set forth upon an expedition against New York. At Saratoga (N.Y.), a short distance down the Hudson River, he allowed himself to be hemmed in by the enemy and was forced to surrender his entire army. Hampered by the orders of an incompetent war-minister, Carleton resigned in 1778 and was succeeded by Sir Frederick Haldimand.

*NOTE:—John Lesperance (born 1838), one of the Canadian novelists of the earlier period, has produced in "The Bastonnais: a tale of the American Invasion of Canada, 1775-1776" a useful and accurate story of the times. *Bastonnais*, a corruption of the word "Bostonnais" (citizens of Boston, Mass.), was the name given by the French-Canadians of that period to the American Invaders of 1775-76, then called "Bostonians" by the English population of Canada.



Haldimand

(21st Governor-General of Canada).

1778—1786.

HALDIMAND

(21st Governor-General of Canada).

1778—1786.

GENERAL Sir Frederick Haldimand, a Swiss officer in the service of England and a very energetic and capable man, replaced Carleton as Governor-General. He was no stranger to Canada. Under Amherst he had commanded the troops at Montreal when that city capitulated to the British in 1760. He afterwards became lieutenant-governor of the district of Three Rivers. Haldimand's administration contained nothing of the spectacular, but in his general policy he followed closely in the footsteps of his immediate predecessor. The French-Canadians, he considered, were the rightful possessors of the country, and the government should be conducted with regard to the "sentiments and manner of thinking of 60,000 rather than of 2,000—three-fourths of

whom (the latter) are traders and cannot with propriety be considered as residents of the Province." Haldimand's first duty was to maintain the defences of the colony and he gave particular attention to the upper posts.

It was during Governor Haldimand's tenure of office that one of the most important events in the history of Canada occurred as a result of the American war for independence. This—a very decided gain to Canada—was the coming of many thousands of British colonists who, refusing to take up arms against their King, left during the progress of the war, but chiefly at its close, their old homes to seek new ones under British rule. These people became known in history by the honourable name of *United Empire Loyalists*. Their influence on the political fortunes of Canada has been necessarily very considerable and they have proved with the French-Canadians a barrier to the growth of any annexation party, and as powerful an influence in national and social life as the Puritan element itself in the Eastern and Western United States. The newcomers were warmly welcomed by Haldimand, who, at the close of the war, devoted himself to the task of providing for their settlement. It is estimated that between 40,000 and 50,000 Loyalists came to British North America, the greatest movement taking place in the years 1783 and 1784. Many reached by sea the shores of Nova Scotia, where they founded the town of Shelburne (Shelburne Co.)—though not a few settled in other parts of that peninsula—and a smaller number went to Cape Breton. In the valley of the St. John

HALDIMAND

river several thousands found a home and created the Province of New Brunswick. Up the Hudson the Loyalist migration moved also to the western part of Quebec and to this coming of about 10,000 of these welcome settlers the Province of Ontario can trace its beginning. Upon and about the site of Kingston (Ont.), in the Niagara peninsula, and even as far west as Detroit, they planted their settlements. A few found their way into the eastern townships of Quebec.

The importance to the country of the arrival of the United Empire Loyalists can hardly be over-estimated. At their coming, two Provinces afterwards known as New Brunswick and Upper Canada (later Ontario) sprang into being. As remarked already, they proved with the French-Canadians a constant barrier to the designs of the United States upon their northern neighbours; and subsequently, during the war of 1812, many of them laid down their lives in defence of their new homes. In the development of the country, socially, intellectually, and politically, they largely shared. Men and women who had sacrificed ease and comfort to preserve their loyalty were the best material out of which to build a nation. General Haldimand's term of office will always be noted in Canadian history for the coming of the Loyalists and for the sympathetic interest he took in settling these people on the lands of Canada, and in alleviating their difficulties by all the means in the power of his government.

Towards the end of 1784 Haldimand embarked for England and later (1786) resigned.

During this interval Henry Hamilton, the Lieutenant-Governor, and Colonel Henry Hope, the Commissary-General at Quebec, became successively Administrators. It may be said of Haldimand as Governor that, with others of his school, he believed in the supreme virtue of the Quebec Act and administered it as consistently as circumstances permitted. The purity of his motives and the fervour of his devotion to his adopted Sovereign cannot but excite our strongest admiration. He can hardly be considered, however, to rank with Carleton either in military skill or political astuteness.

Sir Guy Carleton, then elevated to the peerage as Lord Dorchester, succeeded him in 1786, thus entering upon a second term of governor-generalship.

The history of Canada as a self-governing community commences about this time with the concession of representative institutions to the old provinces comprised within its limits. There was a general demand in the country for representative government. The Maritime Provinces were the first to enjoy it, and, while they had entered upon that more advanced period, Quebec still continued under the sway of a Governor and a Council. This general desire for a change and the advocates of reform found a strong supporter in Carleton. In his report to the British Government he recommended that as the number of English-speaking subjects in the colony had increased, the latter be divided into two Provinces, and that to each be given a constitution suited to the character of its people. This plan was

opposed by many who wished to see British laws, languages, and institutions, forced upon French-Canadians. Fortunately wiser counsel prevailed and the French subjects were generously treated. The author of the Act (called the Constitutional Act of 1791 or Canada Act) which brought about the changes proposed by Lord Dorchester was William Pitt. The Constitutional Act divided the Province of Quebec into Upper (almost exclusively of United Empire Loyalist stock) and Lower (French) Canada, the old name of Canada being revived. The population of the former was then 20,000 and of the latter 125,000.

In each of the new Provinces there was to be a Governor, an Executive Council, and two legislative bodies, corresponding to the King, the Cabinet, and the Houses of Lords and Commons. The legislature in each province consisted of a Legislative Council and the Assembly. The members of the latter were elected by the people. The Roman Catholics continued in the free enjoyment of their religion. The civil law of French Canada was to regulate property and civil rights in the Province of Lower Canada. English criminal law was to prevail in both the Canadas. The people of Upper Canada now enjoyed the privilege of holding land in their own name. In Lower Canada feudal tenure was retained, although even here those who wished might avail themselves of the freehold system. Lord Dorchester was Governor-General not only of the two (Upper, and Lower) Canadas, but also of the other

HALDIMAND

provinces. Each province had a lieutenant-governor. The first Parliament of Lower Canada assembled in the old (Roman Catholic) Bishop's Palace—then as now situated at the top of Mountain Hill—, Quebec City, in December 1792. That of Upper Canada met in September of the same year in the Freemasons' Hall of the little village of Newark—the old name for Niagara-on-the-Lake (Ont.). In 1797 the seat of government of Upper Canada was removed from Newark to York, the old name for Toronto.

In the year 1796 Lord Dorchester, having previously offered his resignation, was recalled. He died in 1808.



Prescott

From an engraving in the Dominion Archives, Ottawa.

(23rd Governor-General of Canada).

1797—1807.

PRESCOTT

(23rd Governor-General of Canada).

1797—1807.

GENERAL *Robert Prescott*, who had served with Amherst and Wolfe at Louisbourg and Quebec, was appointed Governor-in-chief in succession to Lord Dorchester. During the American Revolutionary War he was present at the storming (and loss to the Americans) of Fort Washington (N.Y.) in 1776, and at the battle of Brandywine Creek (Pennsylvania)—where in 1777 Lord Howe defeated the Americans under Washington. In 1794 he effected the reduction of Martinique, and as civil governor of the island won the confidence and esteem both of the French colonists and the natives. He was forced on account of ill-health to leave his command and to return to England in 1795.

Soon after his arrival in Quebec, Prescott began to receive reports from various sources

indicating that an attempt was being made to form a monopoly for the holding of the waste lands of the Crown. The new Governor-General was at first inclined to discount these reports, but when they appeared to come from different and unconnected channels they could no longer be disregarded, and he began to investigate the entire system of land-granting. The latter had not yet been definitely organized and, on the advice of the Executive Council, warrants of survey were issued to applicants and lands occupied pending the grant of a title by the Governor. In a great many cases titles to such lands were never secured. In the meantime a group of capitalists, with the active assistance of friends in the Executive Council, formed the design—which was carried out—of securing and holding for future sale and speculation huge tracts of Crown lands. The result was that confusion reigned in the land-granting department, and immense tracts were being secured for purely speculative purposes to the detriment of settlement. Prescott undertook to straighten out the tangle and to introduce order and justice into the system. His proposed scheme—that persons only who had commenced cultivation on their lands should be confirmed in their titles, while applicants who had not undertaken settlement should receive but a part of the lands demanded, the Crown lands in general to be placed on the market for sale at public auction—was stubbornly opposed by the Executive Council. The dispute was thus transferred to the latter and Prescott endeavoured to defeat its monopolistic plans by

having the minutes on land affairs made public. This aroused further opposition from the Council and changed the issue from the land question, on which the Governor seemed safe, to a more doubtful constitutional one of the right of the Governor-General to control the entry of minutes of the Council. The immediate result was a deadlock in the Council. Chief Justice Osgoode, against whom Lord Dorchester had bitterly complained, led the opposition and brought to bear against the Governor the powerful influence which he apparently possessed in Britain. Memorials and counter-memorials were presented to the British Government, and the Duke of Portland (a former and subsequent Prime Minister)—while Home Secretary under Pitt, with charge of Irish and other affairs—finally decided to end the confusion by recalling Prescott.

During his brief period of actual administration though he retained his governorship till 1807—Prescott made himself immensely popular with the inhabitants generally, and there was doubtless a feeling that in his opposition to the Council he was actuated by motives of public interest. Chief Justice Osgoode was in reality the master of the Executive Council. However praiseworthy his judicial conduct may have been, his political influence undoubtedly tended to disturb the harmonious course of government. The situation in 1799 made it necessary that someone should be recalled; greater justice would have been done and further trouble avoided had Osgoode and not Prescott been made the scapegoat. So in July 1799 Prescott returned to England and the adminis-

tration was conducted by the Lieutenant-Governor of Lower Canada, Robert Shore Milnes, who four years previously had succeeded him in the government of Martinique. Milnes held no military rank, and it was consequently necessary to divide the civil and military commands. The land business was the first question to receive Milnes' attention, and he displayed most commendable tact in successfully solving this most difficult problem. The opposition of Chief Justice Osgoode to the representative of the Crown reached its climax during Milnes' administration. In the Legislative Council the Chief Justice offered a strenuous opposition to a measure of public policy which was being supported by the Administrator, and went so far as to record his protest against its passage. A short time afterwards he adopted obstructive tactics in the Executive Council. For the new Administrator to have dreamed of conducting the government without the aid of the Chief Justice was a stunning blow to the pride of Osgoode. By this time the patience of the British Government had been exhausted, and Osgoode was permitted to retire to England on a handsome pension.

The closing years of Milnes' administration witnessed the first division of the Province of Lower Canada into hostile political camps. The determination of the manner of raising the necessary revenues for the erection of gaols at Quebec and Montreal was the occasion for the lining-up of rival interests. The traders advocated a land-tax, while the landowners and merchant class, predominantly British, insisted on a duty on imports. While the in-

cident served to bring into definite relief the diversity and opposition of interests which existed in the Province, its more definite practical results came from another direction. The Quebec *Mercury*, the organ of the commercial party, took occasion to declaim against the predominance of French-Canadian influence, while, in order to protect the interests of French Canada and to advocate their ideals, the leaders of the French party in the Legislature in 1806 established the newspaper *Le Canadien* which was to have an eventful career. With the motto "*Nos institutions, notre langue et nos lois*," *Le Canadien* became the official organ of French-Canadian thought and policy.

In 1805 Milnes' failing health compelled him to request leave of absence and return home. He left as administrator Thomas Dunn, the doyen of the Executive Council, who in 1807 retired before the new Governor-General Sir James Craig.

The foregoing chronicle of events shows that though from the date of the Constitutional (sometimes called "Canada") Act of 1791 all the provinces enjoyed the boon of representative government, the strife between Councils and Assembly was growing apace. Everywhere there seemed to be discontent at the practical working of the new system. The Provincial Assembly, duly elected by the people, found that its power was limited. The two Councils, Executive and Legislative, stood together in opposition to the people's representatives. The Executive Council, advising the Governor, was independent of the Assembly and therefore little inclined to consult its wishes. The

Assembly steadily claimed control of the revenue of the Province. Other causes of discontent among the representatives of the people were the presences of judges in the Legislatures. In Lower Canada the members of the official class controlling the Executive and Legislative Councils were of British descent and were disposed to ignore the French-Canadians. The latter had a majority in the Assembly, outnumbering the English-speaking members four to one. In Upper Canada there were no racial jealousies to embitter the political strife. Strife there was, however, between the official class, mostly United Empire Loyalists, and the radical members of the Assembly. Too often the lieutenant-governor allowed himself to be swayed by the advice of his officials, and so was led to disregard even the reasonable demands of the Assembly. Sometimes, on the other hand, the Assembly fell under the control of some rash agitator, and was guilty of acts that antagonized the Governor. In Nova Scotia endless trouble arose over the expenditure of money, the Assembly wishing to construct roads and bridges to open up the country, the Council preferring to erect public buildings at Halifax and to pay high salaries to the officials. In New Brunswick a like state of affairs prevailed, the Council rejecting bills passed by the Assembly, and refusing to surrender control of the revenue to the people's representatives.

In 1764, the year following the Peace (or Treaty) of Paris, there appeared in Quebec City the *Quebec Gazette*, half in French, half in English, the first newspaper of provincial

Canada (the *Halifax Gazette* had previously made its appearance in 1752, three years after the founding of Halifax, N.S.). The *Quebec Gazette*, we are told, began with the modest support of one hundred and fifty subscribers. Not to be outdone by her old-time rival, Montreal soon issued her own *Gazette* (1785). Newark (Niagara-on-the-Lake, Ont.) had the honour of producing the pioneer sheet of Upper Canada, the *Upper Canada Gazette or American Oracle*, in 1793. Next appeared the *Mercury* of Quebec City. *Le Canadien*, the first paper printed wholly in French in Canada, was published at Quebec City in 1806.



Craig

From a portrait in the Dominion Archives, Ottawa.

(24th Governor-General of Canada).

1807—1811.

CRAIG

(24th Governor-General of Canada).

1807—1811.

S*IR James Henry Craig* was selected by Lord Castlereagh—at the time British Secretary for War—as Governor-in-chief of Canada for his qualities of soldier of experience and distinction, the necessity being proven of strengthening the command at Quebec and to ward off the attacks which were threatened from without. Since the age of fifteen Craig had followed the life of a soldier, in America, South Africa, in India, and in Italy. He was every inch a soldier and carried into his administration of the civil government the spirit and methods of the Army.

The political condition of the provinces, as mentioned before, was now beginning to assume considerable importance according as

the Assemblies became discontented with their relatively small share in the government of the country. In all the provinces the contest persisted between the popular Assemblies and the Upper Houses. It has been said that Charles the 1st, with all his arrogance, never treated his Parliament with greater superciliousness than did Sir James Craig, when Governor-General, on more than one occasion when the Assembly had crossed his wishes. A conflict was always going on in fact between that body and the representative of the Crown. The Assembly began now to claim full control over the taxes and revenues which belonged to the people of the provinces. The presence of judges in the Legislature was a just cause for public discontent for years, and although these high functionaries were eventually removed from the Assembly they continued to sit in the Upper House until 1840. In Lower Canada the element which dominated both the Executive and Legislative Councils was the official class, a sort of little oligarchy composed exclusively of persons brought from the British Isles, who generally treated the French-Canadians with a studied superciliousness and arrogated to themselves all the important functions of government.

Things came to a climax when *Le Canadien* newspaper, which was established in Quebec as an organ of the French-Canadian majority and had been attacking the government and the English governing class, was seized, and the printer, as well as Mr. Bédard and several other members of the Assembly who were understood to be contributors to its pages or

to control its opinions, were summarily arrested by the orders of Sir James Craig. Though some of these persons obtained their release by an expression of regret for their conduct, Mr. Bédard would not yield and was not released until the Governor-General himself gave up the fight and retired to England, where he died soon afterwards with the consciousness that his conduct with respect to Bédard and other members of the Assembly had not met with the approval of the Imperial authorities; although he had placed the whole case before them by the agency of Mr. Ryland, who had been secretary for years to successive Governors-General, and represented the opinion of the ruling official class. Neither was Sir James Craig more successful in the presentation of his views on Canadian administration and of his two suggested remedies, the suspension of the Constitution of 1791 and the reunion of the provinces, before the Imperial Government. The situation of the Province did not seem to the British Government to demand the radical constitutional measures which Craig advocated.



Prevost

(25th Governor-General of Canada).

1812—1815.

PREVOST

(25th Governor-General of Canada).

1812—1815.

S*IR George Prevost*, pure Swiss by blood, but, like his father before him, a British officer of some distinction in minor positions of civil and military trust, and who, after Craig's departure for England, had been administrator of Canada for the past ten months, assumed the governorship in July 1812. Prior to his Canadian post Prevost had acquired a wide experience. In 1798 he was made military governor of the Island of St. Lucia and three years later was chosen as civil administrator of the colony. Later he was Governor of Dominica, which he victoriously defended from a French attack in 1805, and received a baronetcy for his services. Afterwards, from 1808 until his removal to Lower Canada, he was lieutenant-governor of Nova Scotia, during which term of office he had taken part in the successful attack on Martinique. In Quebec he had already done

much to help the British cause by ingratiating himself with the French-Canadians, who had resented the abrupt manners and sterner methods of his predecessor. French was Prevost's mother tongue. French ways were thoroughly familiar to him and he was naturally fitted to understand French-Canadian aspirations.

New and important events—which overshadowed all—were now occurring to stifle the Canadian political discontent alluded to previously and develop a broader patriotism on all sides. What happened so often during the French period happened again in 1812: a European war gave rise to hostilities in America. In the Canadas although each Province was intent on its political strife, at the rumour of war each was quick to take up arms in Britain's quarrel, and Prevost thus became the British Governor-General and commander-in-chief who was called upon to face the new American invasion. The war of 1812-14 was to prove the fidelity of the Canadian people to the British Crown and stimulate a new spirit of self-reliance among French as well as English Canadians, who were to win victories which are among the most brilliant episodes of Canadian history.

THE WAR OF 1812-14.

At this time almost all Europe was at the feet of Napoleon, the Emperor of France. Britain alone was a stumbling-block in his way. To the removal of this obstacle the emperor devoted all the resources of the French Empire. In the hope of ruining British commerce,

not only for Great Britain's own national security but also for the integrity of Europe—then dominated by Bonaparte's ambition—, found it necessary to issue certain Orders in Council which required the vessels of neutral powers to touch at British ports and pay duty before trading with European (Continental) countries. These restrictions, which practically closed the Continent to all trade that was not British or under British control, bore heavily upon the United States, whose ships were engaged in an extensive carrying trade which had become very profitable. The bitter feeling of the United States towards Great Britain was further increased by the action of the latter power in seizing and searching American ships on the high seas for deserting British seamen—for, in the life-and-death struggle against Napoleon, British crews had to be found or British disaster would follow. But in the year 1812 the last thing that Great Britain wanted was war with the United States. The Americans would be a formidable addition to the enemies already in the field. Except for the Peninsula (Spain and Portugal) and inhospitable Russia, the whole continent of Europe was well within Napoleon's sphere of influence. British sea-power, mercantile and naval, was strained to the uttermost. The Navy had more and more difficulty in recruiting its ranks. It was by far the greatest

navy that had ever existed. Great Britain, therefore, went so far for the sake of peace as to repeal the obnoxious Orders in Council and offered any *modus vivendi* that would avert war without giving up the right of impressing *bona fide* British subjects, even as to make amends for any injustice done in enforcing the "right of search." It was not too late to avert a conflict, and all differences between the two nations would have been removed, had it not been that a strong war party dominated the United States Senate. The Democrat governing party virtually fell under the influence of France, and the Southern political leaders, who were most inimical to England, succeeded in forcing President Madison to agree to a declaration of war as a condition to his re-election (as Democratic candidate) to the presidency that same year. The consequence was the passage of a war measure by Congress as soon as Madison issued his message, and, in spite of much opposition, especially from the New England States, the formal declaration of hostilities by the United States on June 18th 1812. Such were the conditions under which Great Britain was forced to enter the war. As a chronicler has aptly remarked: "There were only then eighteen millions in the British Isles to maintain an Empire in every quarter of the globe, the greatest navy in the world, and an army on the continent of Europe against the greatest captain of the age; eighteen millions under a stricken King—George III.—, with a recently assassinated Prime Minister, Spencer Perceval, with a disaffected Ireland, with wide-

spread distress at home and continual menace from twice as many enemies abroad. It was no time to add six millions of new enemies, who lived beside a vulnerable colony such as Canada three thousand miles away."

But the people of the United States had entirely mistaken, however, the spirit of Canadians—as the result of the war showed—and failed to understand that this small population scattered over a large region, not more than 400,000 souls, was animated by a stern determination to remain faithful to England. It is not surprising then that the Americans were confident of success. "On to Canada!" was their cry. "We can take Canada without soldiers," announced their Secretary of State. "The expulsion of the English is a mere matter of marching," remarked another politician. One thing the enemy overlooked and that was the character of the Canadians. Fighting in a just cause and in defence of their homes, the latter were animated by a spirit which in war usually offsets an enemy's advantage in numbers and wealth.

The plan of campaign adopted by the Americans was threefold. General Dearborn commanding the "Army of the North" was stationed at Albany (N.Y.), ready to move against Montreal. The "Army of the Centre" under the command of General Van Rensselaer threatened the Niagara frontier. At Detroit lay the "Army of the West" under General Hull, whose appointed task was the conquest of Western Canada. That the Maritime Provinces remained unmolested, except for the attacks of privateers, was due to the

opposition of the New England States to the war, on account of the effect on their commerce. The first year of the war, 1812, was a continuous record of success for Canada and the campaign opened with a victory for the British arms. Michilimackinac, the key to the Upper Lakes, situated at the gateway of the West—the junction of Lakes Huron and Michigan—, was captured and held by a small force of English regulars and French-Canadian *voyageurs*. This success had an important effect, as it caused the western Indians to rally to the side of the British. Tecumseh, their leader, a Shawnee chief, had already lent his aid with about 150 of his followers; he was now joined by 600 Indians from the West. Then followed the capitulation of the American General Hull, with his “Army of the West.” Having invaded Canada, but hearing that the British were advancing, he was forced to retreat to Detroit, whence he started. General Brock, who happened to be Acting Lieutenant-Governor of Upper Canada at the time, hurried up from York (now Toronto) with a mixed force of 700 regulars and volunteers, and, assisted by Tecumseh and his Indians, laid siege to Detroit. Just as he was about to storm the place, the enemy surrendered. 2,500 prisoners, 37 cannon, and the control of the State of Michigan, were the fruits of this victory. For this exploit the honour of knight-hood was bestowed on the victorious general.

No sooner had Detroit fallen that Brock hastened back to defend the Niagara frontier, threatened by Van Rensselaer and his “Army of the Centre.” Meanwhile he was met with

PREVOST

the news that an armistice had been concluded between the British Commander-in-Chief, Sir George Prevost, and General Dearborn (of the "Army of the North") on behalf of the Americans. But the armistice lasted only one month, as the President of the United States refused to ratify it; but this month was well employed by the Americans in hurrying troops and supplies to the front. To defend the Niagara frontier Brock had at his disposal a force of only 1,500 men, scattered along its whole length of 36 miles. On the opposite side of the Niagara river were 8,600 Americans and 400 Seneca (Iroquois) Indians, under the command of Generals Rensselaer and Smyth. In the early morning of October 13th, in the midst of a violent storm of wind and rain, the Americans began the crossing of the river at a point (now Lewiston, N.Y.) immediately opposite Queenston Heights (Ont.) which they were attempting to occupy with the object of establishing there a base of future operations against Upper Canada. At first a few hundred of them had succeeded in landing and taking temporary possession of the heights, and at the beginning of the battle which followed—after the British had been able to concentrate at the spot—General Brock was unhappily slain while leading his men up the heights, and the same fate befell his chivalrous aide-de-camp, Colonel John Macdonell, the Attorney-General of the Province. It was left for General Sheaffe to complete the victory in the afternoon, who, attacking the enemy on three sides with his much inferior force, drove the remainder of

the beaten American army across the beautiful river. In an hour it was over, those of the Americans who had not fallen in the struggle or been hurled over the cliff surrendered to the number of over 900. The victory (Battle of Queenston Heights, October 13, 1812) was a glorious one, and with it the campaign of 1812 closed. Everywhere Canada was free from the invader, chiefly through the energy and sagacity with which the gallant General Brock had made his preparations to repel assault.

By the opening of the following spring the American forces were greatly increased for the campaign of 1813, and at almost every point outnumbered those of the defenders. At Plattsburg (N.Y.), on Lake Champlain, lay an army of 13,000 men under General Dearborn, while Sir Geo. Prevost had only 3,000 for the defence of Montreal. To oppose 2,200 Americans at Sackett's Harbour (N.Y.), on Lake Ontario, only 1,500 men could be mustered. On the Niagara frontier 5,000 Americans faced a force of 2,300 British. In danger and hardship the coming campaign was to try to the utmost the courage and endurance of the Canadian people. Great Britain was fully occupied in Europe and could send little aid to her struggling colonies. The situation was made all the more trying by the scarcity of supplies and suitable means of transportation. Salt pork and biscuits were imported from England, while some beef and cattle were brought in from Vermont. These supplies, however, had to be hauled up the St. Lawrence—in winter on sleds, during the

summer in flat-boats. These crude methods of transportation were very slow and entailed great labour. The urgent call to arms had drawn many of the settlers from their homes, with the result that the farms were in danger of being neglected. In this crisis the Canadian women came forward nobly, and took up the work of brothers and husbands while the latter fought and bled at the front. The early engagements of 1813 were widely scattered. In the west Colonel Procter, making a sudden movement from Detroit—now in British hands—fell upon Brigadier Winchester at Frenchtown (Michigan), near Lake Erie, south of Detroit, and won a stubbornly fought battle, capturing the American general and 500 of his men, with stores and ammunition. Upon the St. Lawrence, over the "ice-bridge" before the break of spring, Col. (George) Macdonell, of the Glengarrys, with a small force of regulars and volunteers, made a clever raid upon the enemy by capturing Ogdensburg (N.Y.), opposite Prescott, Ont. Eleven cannon and a large amount of stores and ammunition were captured, and four armed ships which lay in the harbour were burned. From Sackett's Harbour (N.Y.), the American fleet, under Commodore Chauncey, controlled Lake Ontario. Embarking 2,500 men, Chauncey made a sudden descent upon the little town of York (now Toronto). Important only as the seat of government of Upper Canada, York was almost defenceless. General Sheaffe, who happened to be passing through at the time, offered some resistance, but in the end, thinking the place not worth saving, withdrew to

Kingston, the strongest position to the west of Montreal. The invaders then wantonly burnt the legislative and other public buildings, pillaged the church and a number of private houses, and did not even spare the small library and public records. The war now centred for a time on the Niagara Peninsula. From York (Toronto) the American fleet sailed for the mouth of the Niagara river, to co-operate with the land force in an attack upon Fort George—opposite Fort Niagara, at the mouth of the Niagara river. The British forces, 1,600 strong, withdrawing from Forts George, Chippawa, and Erie, three posts along the Niagara river, concentrated at first at Beaver Dam, a few miles westward, and, before the advance of 3,000 Americans, fell back to Burlington Heights, near Hamilton, Ont. At Stoney Creek—between Beaver Dam and Burlington Heights—however, the advance of the pursuers was suddenly checked. An unexpected counter-attack by night, led by Colonel Harvey, threw the camp of the invaders into confusion and forced them to beat a hasty retreat. The two American Generals and 100 men were captured, together with four cannon. Beaver Dam was now reoccupied and left in charge of Lieut. Fitzgibbon. The enemy next planned to surprise the latter. The news of their intention reached the ears of James Secord, a militia officer who had been wounded, and was then living at Queenston, not far away. As he was himself unable to warn Fitzgibbon, his wife, Laura Secord, undertook the dangerous mission. Driving a cow before her until she reached the woods,

that the enemy might not suspect her real aim, this brave woman set out upon her lonely journey of twenty miles through dense forest. Added to the difficulty of making a way where there were few paths was the constant danger of meeting lurking Indians or Americans. At the close of a long day's tramp she delivered her message to the defenders of Beaver Dam. When the American force of nearly 600 men approached all was in readiness. Bewildered by the fierce attacks of the Indians, and thinking he was surrounded by superior forces, the American commander surrendered. This victory gave great encouragement to the British. Both Lake Ontario and Lake Erie witnessed naval encounters during the campaign of 1813. Off Fort Niagara (mouth of the Niagara river) the first engagement took place between the British fleet of 6 ships, commanded by Sir James Yeo, and an American fleet of 14 sail under Commodore Chauncey. After sustaining a loss of 4 ships—2 captured and 2 disabled—Chauncey withdrew under shelter of Fort Niagara battery. A month later a more stubborn fight took place on Lake Erie, which resulted in a more decided victory for the enemy. The American Commodore Perry, with a fleet built under his direction, and superior in ships, men, and guns, defeated Capt. Barclay at Put-in Bay (Ohio), on Lake Erie, south of Detroit, and destroyed or captured all his vessels. Barclay's defeat made it now impossible for the British to hold Detroit. Col. Procter, therefore, with his 1,300 men, including 500 Indians under Tecumseh, began a retreat up the Thames river (Ontario),

closely followed by General Harrison at the head of 3,000 Americans. At Moraviantown, an Indian village about 60 miles east of Windsor, Ont., he was defeated by General Harrison, and the gallant Tecumseh, faithful ally of the Canadians, fell in the battle, his body being treated with every indignity, his skin, according to report, having been carried off to Kentucky as a trophy. The next day Harrison burned Moraviantown, and then marched back to Detroit.

Late in the season, the Americans began to carry out a plan of attack upon Montreal. The movement was to be twofold, one army descending the St. Lawrence, the other, the Châteauguay river—which taking its source in the Adirondack Mountains, N.Y., empties itself into the St. Lawrence (Lake St. Louis), opposite Montreal Island. The two armies were to unite at the mouth of the Châteauguay. General Hampton crossed over from Lake Champlain to the Châteauguay river, leading an army of about 7,000 men. All his movements, however, were being closely watched by Colonel de Salaberry—the “hero of Châteauguay”—the indefatigable commander of the Voltigeurs, a regiment of French-Canadians permanently embodied as regulars in the British army during the war. Hampton had already established communication via Ogdensburg with the second American army—which was to descend the St. Lawrence, under Wilkinson, from Sackett’s Harbour (N.Y.), Lake Ontario. He then advanced along the Châteauguay river to drive De Salaberry back. De Salaberry had 300

French-Canadian regulars actually with him, and 200 Indians in the woods, and was supported by Col. Macdonell, of the Glengarrys, in command of 600 French-Canadian militia, who were mostly kept in reserve. At a favourable point—now called Châteauguay and situated 13 miles to the south of Montreal—upon the river, Hampton's advance was checked by De Salaberry. The first onslaught of the enemy with 4,000 men was sustained by the French-Canadian commander who, when his line was being driven in, held his ground by ordering his bugler to sound lustily the call for the reserves. Col. Macdonell, understanding the situation, hastened to second his chief by ordering his buglers to scatter through the woods and play, making as much noise as possible. As the woods echoed to the call of the bugles, to the shouts of the soldiers, and to the yells of the Indians, the American force halted as if paralysed before a large army pressing forward. Fearing that his own force would be annihilated by an overwhelming one attacking in front and rear, Hampton withdrew in confusion, followed by the withering fire from the victorious French-Canadians. This victory (Battle of Châteauguay, October 26th, 1813), which has only a few parallels in warlike annals, was one of the most brilliant of the whole war. It was notable for the disparity of numbers, the Americans being five to one; also it was one of the two actions that helped to break up the American invasion of Montreal; and still more notably it was essentially a French-Canadian victory. After his

defeat Hampton retreated as rapidly as possible to Plattsburg.

Ten days after Châteauguay, General Wilkinson set out from Sackett's Harbour (N.Y.), on Lake Ontario, with 8,000 men composing the second American army of invasion, and started down the St. Lawrence—landing below Prescott (Ont.), and then proceeding towards Cornwall, further down—to effect a junction with Hampton; the common objective being the capture of Montreal. But equally ill-starred was his fortune. A British force from Kingston (Ont.), regulars and militia, of 800 combatants, under the command of Colonel Morrison, followed on his heels. As the main body of Americans, under General Wilkinson, descended the river, a force of 2,500 men, under Colonel Boyd, protected its rear. This rear-guard was being continually annoyed by the inferior Canadian force following closely upon it. At Chrystler's Farm—near what is now known as Cook's Point on the north bank of the St. Lawrence (near Morrisburg, Co. Dundas, Ont.)—the enemy turned about "to brush away the annoyance," but were themselves utterly routed by a force which they outnumbered three to one (Battle of Chrystler's farm, November 11th, 1813). The defeated Boyd rejoined Wilkinson at the foot of Long Sault Rapids, in the neighbourhood of the present town of Cornwall (Ont.), and here the news arrived of General Hampton's repulse, with his army of 7,000 men, at Châteauguay.

Wilkinson then gave up the idea of taking Montreal and withdrew across the border.

Chrystler's Farm had been a well-fought action, showing skilful tactics on the British side. It was also very remarkable for the diversity of the men composing that side. There were there representatives of the royal navy, provincial marine, imperial army, Canadian regulars, Canadian militia, and Indians; and among the Canadians were the French-speaking *voltigeurs* fighting shoulder to shoulder with English-speaking United Empire Loyalists on a field of battle in Upper Canada.

Save for the burning of Newark (the old name for Niagara-on-the-Lake, Ont.), the first capital of Upper Canada, by the enemy, and of the American towns from Fort Niagara to Buffalo (whole United States side of the Niagara river) by the British (in retribution for the burning of Newark), the land campaign of 1813 was at an end. The only Canadian territory held by the enemy was Amherstburg, in Upper Canada—on the Detroit River, south of Windsor (Ont.)—, while “the British flag floated over Fort Niagara (N.Y.) and the whole American side of the river was a ruined country.”

In the British victories of 1812 and 1813 the Indians played their part. They were first of all excellent scouts. They did all the actual fighting at the Battle of Beaver Dam. Their greatest leader was Tecumseh. He was a born leader of men, and as merciful in victory as he was gallant in defeat. The story of his life and death is the swan-song of Indian prowess in a white man's war. He and Brock, who were of the same age, saw in each other a

kindred soul. Like De Salaberry, he became a British hero, though very much further still from being a man of British blood. And, like Brock, he fell immortal in a British cause.

The two victories of Châteauguay and Chrystler's Farm during the second year of the war were won almost entirely by Canadian prowess and skill, and must be always mentioned among the glorious episodes of Canadian history.

The campaign of 1813 is also heightened on the British side by the victory at sea (June 1st, 1813) of the British frigate *Shannon*, under Captain Broke, over the United States frigate *Chesapeake*, under Captain Lawrence. This memorable fight, which took place off Massachusetts Bay—18 miles east of Boston Harbour (Boston Light)—illustrates equally the courage of British and American sailors, of men belonging to the same great stock which had won so many victories on the sea. The two ships were equally matched, and after a sharp contest of only 15 minutes the *Chesapeake* was beaten, but not until Captain Lawrence was fatally wounded.

The really effective work of the British navy in 1813 was the gradual strangling of American sea-borne trade, which almost died out completely in 1814, under the ever-tightening pressure of the coils.

The campaign of 1814—which was to be the last year of the war—opened in the early spring with General Wilkinson's advance into Lower Canada (or Quebec) with an army 4,000 strong. The progress of this force was

effectually checked at Lacolle Mill (on Lacolle river, a small tributary of the Richelieu and not far from Isle-aux-Noix on the latter), a large, two-storied, stone structure. Such was the mettle of the little garrison, 500 in number, under Colonel Hancock, that they even dared to make a sortie against an enemy eight times as numerous. The Americans, daunted by the successful defence of the mill, and galled by the effective fire of some British gun-boats that now came up the Richelieu, retreated across the border. Further good fortune rested with the British cause in the capture of Oswego (N.Y.), on Lake Ontario, by Sir Gordon Drummond, assisted by the fleet under Sir James Yeo; but this success was followed by a reverse at Sandy Creek, in the same neighbourhood—to the north of Oswego—where 200 British blue-jackets and marines were ambushed and captured by the Americans. The decisive struggle of the campaign, however, took place in the Niagara peninsula, where, forced back from Chippawa with a loss of 500 men in a rash attack on a strongly defended position, the British forces, raised by reinforcements under General Drummond to a strength of 2,800, had been concentrated with a view of opposing the advance of an American army 4,000 strong, which they faced, into Upper Canada. A road running within hailing distance (about 1 mile below) of Niagara Falls, now famous as Lundy's Lane, became the scene of the last big battle of the war. From 5 o'clock in the afternoon until midnight the fight continued. Amid the darkness the combatants fought for the most part hand to hand,

so that the loss on both sides was heavy. The fortune of battle swayed from side to side, but victory at last rested with the British, led by Drummond. The enemy, leaving their dead and wounded on the field, fled through the darkness to Chippawa. On the following day, throwing their heavy baggage into the river and destroying the Chippawa river bridge, they continued their flight further south to Fort Erie (at the Lake Erie end of the Niagara river, opposite Buffalo, N.Y.). In this action (Battle of Lundy's Lane, July 25th, 1814) the American loss was about 900; that of the British 84 killed and 559 wounded. In this hard-fought battle the Canadian militia well upheld their high reputation. General Drummond himself wrote warmly of their zeal and loyalty and of their conspicuous gallantry under fire. This last great fight of the war will always be cited by Canadians as illustrating the mettle of their own militia in old times. Humiliation to British arms marred, however, the Canadian successes. Prevost's fleet now sustained a complete defeat on Lake Champlain, and so great was his dismay that he turned back from his advance against Plattsburg with a splendid force of 11,000 men, many of them veterans of the Peninsula War—for, with Napoleon banished to Elba, Great Britain had been free to send strong reinforcements to America. Plattsburg and its garrison must have fallen easily, without the aid of ships, into his hands, had he been possessed of more resolution. He was summoned to England to answer for his conduct, but died before the trial took place.

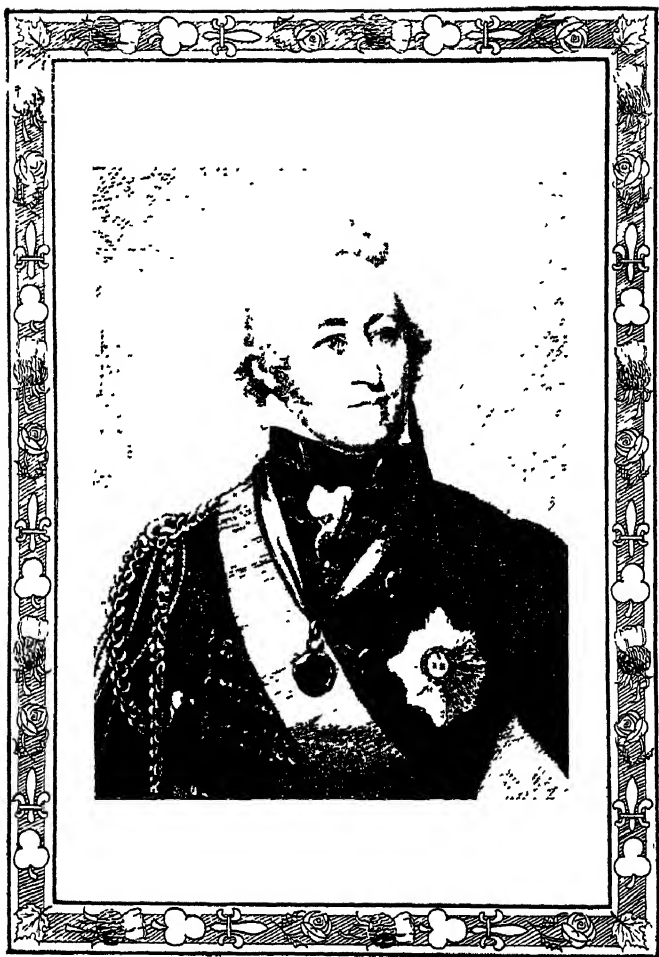
In the meantime, the Maritime Provinces were not idle. Under the active leadership of Sir John Sherbrooke, then Lieutenant-Governor of Nova Scotia, Maine was invaded, and that portion of the state lying between the Penobscot river and New Brunswick was brought under British rule. Until the close of the war Sherbrooke administered this territory, the inhabitants of which cheerfully submitted.

The Atlantic seaboard was now blockaded by the British fleets. Backed by one of these, a land force reached and took Washington, the Federal capital, and on the night of August 24th, 1814, burned its public buildings, including the Capitol, in retaliation for the burning by the Americans of York (Toronto), Newark, and Moraviantown. The American invasion of Canada had failed decisively. Both sides seemed now ready for peace, and the Treaty of Ghent, terminating the war, was signed on December 24, 1814. Both sides were to give up all territory acquired during the war. American fishermen lost certain fishing privileges on the shores of British North America which they hitherto enjoyed.

The Americans had little reason to feel proud of the struggle just ended. They had forced on a war which might have been averted, and had attacked an unoffending people. They had gained absolutely nothing in wealth, least of all in national honour. Their export trade had dwindled in one year from over \$100,000,000 to less than \$7,000,000, their imports from \$140,000,000 to \$15,000,000. No fewer than 3,000 of their merchant vessels had fallen into the hands of British

seamen. The Canadas, too, had suffered greatly. Canadians, however, unlike their late enemy, had the satisfaction of feeling that they had come out of the war with no little honour. They had entered into the struggle with slight hope, perhaps, of victory; they came out of it conscious of their ability to defend themselves and their country in times of danger.

The people of Canada will always hold in grateful recollection the names of those men who did such good service for their country during these momentous years 1812, 1813, and 1814. Brock, De Salaberry, Tecumseh, Morrison, Fitzgibbon, and Drummond are among the most honourable names in Canadian history. A stately monument overlooks the noble river of the Niagara and recalls the services of the gallant soldier Brock whose remains rest beneath. A beautiful village, beyond which stretches historic Lundy's Lane, recalls the name and deeds of Drummond. As the steamers pass down the St. Lawrence they see on the northern bank, east of the town of Morrisburg, Ont., the obelisk which the Canadian Government has raised on the site of the battlefield where Morrison defeated Boyd. On the meadows of Châteauguay, across Lake St. Louis, south of Montreal, another monument has been erected by the same national spirit in honour of the victory won by a famous representative of the French-Canadian race, De Salaberry, who proved how courageously French-Canadians could fight for the new régime under which they were then, as now, so happy and prosperous.



Sherbrooke

(26th Governor-General of Canada).

1816—1818.

SHERBROOKE

(26th Governor-General of Canada).

1816—1818.

S*IR John Coape Sherbrooke*, lieutenant-governor of Nova Scotia, was selected by the British Government as successor to Sir George Prevost. Before his appointment to Nova Scotia, Sherbrooke had seen active service in almost every quarter of the globe. He served with Wellington during the Peninsular campaign of 1819. During the 15 months interval pending the arrival of Sherbrooke the administration of Canada had been conducted successively by Sir Gordon Drummond and Major-General John Wilson.

The call to arms in 1812 had hushed political turmoil in all the Provinces, but the war which followed in no way affected the questions at issue between the parties. No sooner had peace been restored than the old differ-

ences again claimed public attention. The Constitutional (or "Canada") Act of 1791 had given to the people the privilege of electing an Assembly to represent them in the Government. A quarter of a century had passed, and the members of the Assembly found that they had very little power. Many bills passed by them were rejected by the Legislative Council. The latter body was everywhere in league with the Executive, or with the Governor. Both Councils were appointed by the Governor and so were independent of the Assembly. In the Maritime Provinces the two Councils (Executive and Legislative) even sat as one body. Even where the two were separate many were members of both.

The attitude of the Assembly, as revealed in their protests against the Privy Council's decisions and the suspension of projects depending on provincial legislation, soon gave sufficient evidence to the Colonial Office—Lord Bathurst was British Secretary for War and the Colonies at the time—that the Canadian situation was rapidly becoming critical. The real significance of the latter had not yet been seized by, or represented to, the Colonial Secretary, and his policy in consequence did not reach at first the real causes of the trouble. In Lord Bathurst's mind the Canadian problem resolved itself then into a simple contest between the representative of the Crown and a refractory Assembly—a contest in which the preservation of the colony demanded apparently that the full weight of the Colonial Office should be thrown on the side of the Governor and two Councils.

To Sir John Sherbrooke, who viewed things at closer range, the situation appeared in a totally different light. On his arrival at Quebec he was confronted, on the one hand, with Lord Bathurst's policy "You should forthwith dissolve," and, on the other, with a newly elected Assembly even more antagonistic than its predecessor. He rightly was of opinion that the warnings of Craig's administration should have taught the lesson that the policy of coercion was doomed to failure.

Sherbrooke resumed therefore Lord Dorchester's policy of concord and *bonne entente* and impressed his views on the Colonial Office. His representations were not without effect in altering the attitude of Lord Bathurst. Much was consequently left to the discretion of the Governor-General, and an important result was Lord Bathurst's frank proposal to open the Provincial patronage to the French-Canadians.

Louis Joseph Papineau, who had become the leader of the French-Canadian party, was Speaker of the Assembly since 1815. Endowed with great oratorical gifts, his natural ability brought him quickly to the front. He entered Parliament (Assembly of Lower Canada) at the close of the war of 1812-14, in which he served as an officer of militia, being then 26 years of age. Sherbrooke knew how to compromise justly with him and as a consequence the session of the Provincial Parliament of 1817 was in many respects the most successful of any since the establishment of representative government. At no time was a

greater cordiality exhibited between the Governor-General and the House of Assembly. This happy condition was due chiefly to the political wisdom of Sherbrooke, and also in no small measure, as the Governor himself confessed, to the assistance which he received from Papineau. His year's experience had already indicated to Sherbrooke the line which the solution of the Canadian problem should take.

Sherbrooke, although not accepting at once the principle of a responsible executive, perceived the necessity of securing some bond of union between the executive and legislative branches of the Government, and proposed that the Speaker of the Assembly (who was Papineau) for the time being be made a member of the Executive Council, that he might thus be informed of all that was passing. This was in fact the first official tentative made on the road to responsible government.

The Governor finally turned his attention to the question of control of the provincial revenue.

The failure of his health compelled Sir John Sherbrooke to request leave to retire, and in July 1818 he handed over the administration to the Duke of Richmond.



Richmond

(27th Governor-General of Canada).

1818—1819.

RICHMOND

(27th Governor-General of Canada).

1818—1819.

THE Canadian people were highly flattered by the appointment of a Governor of the rank and distinction of *Charles Lennox, fourth Duke of Richmond*. When Captain in the Coldstream Guards, Charles Lennox had acquired an unhappy notoriety by fighting a duel with the Duke of York (Frederick Augustus, second son of George III). He represented Sussex in Parliament from 1790 until his succession to the dukedom in 1806. By 1805 he had attained the military rank of lieutenant-general, and in 1807 was made Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland which position he occupied till 1813 when he removed to Brussels, and, though not actively engaged in the campaign, he followed closely the move-

RICHMOND

ments leading up to Waterloo. It was his good fortune to have been in the suite of the Duke of Wellington during that notable struggle. The ball given by the Duke and Duchess of Richmond at Brussels on the eve of the battle of Quatre Bras (20 miles S.E. of Brussels, where the Allies on June 16, 1815—two days before the battle of Waterloo—defeated the French under Marshal Ney) has been immortalized in Byron's familiar lines in *Childe Harold*:

"There was a sound of revelry by night,
And Belgium's capital had gathered then
Her Beauty and her Chivalry, and bright
The lamps shone o'er fair women and brave men.
A thousand hearts beat happily; and, when
Music arose with voluptuous swell,
Soft eyes looked love to eyes which spake again,
And all went merry as a marriage-bell,
But hush! hark! a deep sound strikes like a rising knell!"

The antagonisms of race and position were now being transformed into a definite political policy in Canada. A bill of supply presented by the Assembly had been defeated in the Council. The Duke of Richmond, although popular personally with the Canadian people with whom he came in contact, was entirely out of sympathy with the claims of the French-Canadian party in the Assembly. After this body had asserted its position on the question of supply and had ignored certain of his recommendations, the Governor decided to prorogue Parliament. His speech on the prorogation was unfortunately of the same style as the harangues of Sir James Craig, and did much to inflame the spirit of bitterness which three recent (Prescott, Prevost, and Sherbrooke) administrations tended greatly to allay. Richmond's interference with the Assembly,

RICHMOND

followed by his recommendations to the Imperial authorities that its acts be disallowed, was at its height when, after only one year's administration, he died (August 1819), while on a journey of inspection, of hydrophobia caused by the bite of a pet fox at Sorel (Que.) some two months before.



Dalhousie

(28th Governor-General of Canada)

1820—1828.

DALHOUSIE

(28th Governor-General of Canada).

1820—1828.

GEORGE Ramsay, ninth Earl of Dalhousie was, like Sherbrooke, lieutenant-governor of Nova Scotia (whom he succeeded to that office) prior to being appointed Governor-in-chief of the Canadas. In the interregnum between the death of the Duke of Richmond and Dalhousie's official nomination, the administration devolved first on James Monk, the senior Protestant member of the Executive Council, who was in turn relieved by Sir Peregrine Maitland, the lieutenant-governor of the upper Province and Commander of the Forces in Canada. Dalhousie's fame has been overshadowed by that of his son (James Andrew, who in 1849 was made a marquess), the great viceroy of India, the conqueror of the Sikhs, but he was a man of mark in his time. Entering the army at the age of 18, he had seen much active service. In the Peninsular War he commanded the 7th Division and won the rare

praise of Wellington for his decisive action along with Picton at the Battle of Vitoria (June 21, 1813), in the north of Spain—which practically decided the war against Napoleon in Spain. For his services at Waterloo he received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament. He was the schoolmate and lifelong friend of Walter Scott.

At this period there were two opposing factions in each Province: on the one hand the Legislative and Executive Councils, supported generally by the Governor; on the other hand the party of reform, represented in the Assembly. Save for side issues, such as the Clergy Reserves (conflict between the Established Church, which alone controlled, to the exclusion of other Protestant denominations, 1/7 of the ungranted lands of the Province, set apart for the support of the "Protestant clergy") in Upper Canada, racial antagonism in Lower Canada, and the land question in Prince Edward Island (where large tracts of land were held by landlords living in England and the government tax (land rent) had become very burdensome), the two problems common to all the Provinces were the control of revenue and the responsibility of the Executive Council to the Assembly.

In Lower Canada the standing dispute between the Executive Council and the Assembly was over the control of public funds. The revenue of the Province came from three sources: first there was the revenue arising from duties levied by the Crown "towards defraying the expenses of the administration of justice and the support of the civil

government of the Province"; in the second place there was the "casual and territorial" revenue derived from the leases of mines and the sale of Crown lands; finally, there were the returns from the duties levied by the Provincial Parliament. The first two sources of revenue were controlled by the Governor and his Council, only the third being in the hands of the Assembly. The Assembly never ceased to claim the right to control all the revenues of the Province. The Executive, however, was quite independent as long as the funds under its control were sufficient to pay the salaries of the officials. The contest had begun early in the century. It was the custom of the Governor and his Council to pay the salaries of public officials, the "civil list" as it was called, and the running expenses of the government, out of the revenue under their control. After Lord Dalhousie had become Governor the funds at the disposal of the Executive failed to cover the "civil list." The Assembly, called upon to vote more money, agreed to do so provided all public accounts were submitted for its approval. Dalhousie, considering this claim perhaps as an encroachment on the representative of the Crown's prerogatives, refused to comply with the condition and drew money from the public treasury without the consent of the Assembly.

Papineau, who for ten years was Speaker of the Assembly, soon drifted into bitter opposition to the Governor, and it was in connection with his re-election to the chair in 1827 that he came into notable conflict with Dalhousie. The latter refused to approve of

his election as Speaker of the Assembly, because he had reflected in strong terms in a manifesto on the conduct of the Governor. When the Assembly refused to reconsider its action and elect another Speaker, Lord Dalhousie prorogued the Legislature, which did not again meet until he was recalled the following year and sent to India as commander-in-chief. After the prorogation public meetings were held all over the Province, and a statement of grievances bearing 87,000 signatures was drawn up and forwarded to London. The British Government, after a careful consideration of these grievances, made some important changes. The Crown duties were placed under the control of the Assembly, on condition that a permanent "civil list" was voted. All judges were to give up their seats in the Legislative Council, and bishops were to cease to take part in the government. The two Councils were to be enlarged and made to represent all classes and interests, the members not to be holders of government offices. Dalhousie was therefore recalled. Sir James Kempt, who was selected as administrator during a couple of years after his departure, accepted Papineau for Speaker and the trouble was, for the time being, ended.

A scheme of union of the two Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada was also drawn up and proposed during Dalhousie's tenure of office. The obvious purpose in Lower Canada's eyes was to counteract the influence of French Canada by throwing the English population of Upper Canada in the balance against it. The suggestion had not even the virtue of novelty

to commend it. As early as 1810, during the stormy years of Craig's administration, Chief Justice Sewell had proposed the reunion of the two Provinces and had even gone the length of advocating such a basis of representation as would give to the British minority a control of the united Legislature. The proceedings of the latter in the new scheme were to be kept in the English language alone, while after 15 years English was to be the official language of debate in the House. But even in Upper Canada this latest union scheme aroused little enthusiasm. Opposition to it was definitely organized in each of the districts of Lower Canada and a monster petition was signed protesting against the bill. The statement of such a clear issue seemed to reveal the exact strength of the opposing parties in that Province, and it became evident that there were many English-speaking Canadians there who were out of sympathy with the bureaucracy—the promoters of the bill. Even the Legislative Council, the bureaucracy's stronghold, passed, despite the protests of the ultra-British faction, a resolution in opposition to the Union. In the end the opposition to the political features of the bill was so emphatic that the government was compelled to withdraw it in the form in which it was introduced.

Dalhousie, placed between the policy of the Colonial Office of that time—where British colonial thought had not yet struck a basis broad and solid enough to support the idea of a self-governing colony, nor had the knowledge of actual conditions in the colonies premeated far enough into British officialdom to prevent

inglorious mistakes—and the demands of French Canada, found himself in an extraordinary, almost impossible, situation. That he cherished at heart a warm admiration for His Majesty's French-Canadian subjects cannot be denied—witness his zeal for the reconciliation of the French and English races in his activity in securing funds for the erection, under his own inspiration, on the heights of Quebec City in 1828, of the now well-known monument to the joint memory and common valour of those great commanders Wolfe and Montcalm.

Lord Dalhousie attempted to govern to the best of his ability, and what mistakes he committed arose rather perhaps from the contradictory and perplexing instructions he received at times from Downing Street. He at least succeeded in keeping the government moving when with a weaker man anarchy would have reigned.

Dalhousie's administration has left behind it many permanent traces. In Halifax, Nova Scotia, while lieutenant-governor, he founded Dalhousie College—now Dalhousie University —, also a library for the officers of the garrison, and presented the portraits of George III and his Queen which adorn the Provincial Parliament Buildings of that town. At Quebec City he founded (in 1824) the Literary and Historical Society, which still exists to this day; beside setting on foot the subscription referred to above. Place-names in different parts of the Dominion testify to the popularity of this soldier-governor. Education and also Agriculture, in Canada, owe much to his leadership.



Aylmer

(29th Governor-General of Canada).

1831—1835.

AYLMER

(29th Governor-General of Canada).

1831—1835.

MATTHEW *Whitworth, Baron Aylmer*, relieved Sir James Kempt as administrator in October 1830 and at the beginning of the following year became Governor-General. Sir James Kempt, during the two years of his administration, had shown a conciliatory attitude which had at least the effect of improving the temper of the Lower Canada Assembly, and the session of 1829 established a record for the amount of legislation passed. The constitution of both the Executive and Legislative Councils was seriously considered by Kempt, but the extent to which he was inclined to advocate reform was merely the appointment of fewer functionaries, and including two or three of the leaders of the Assembly in the Executive Council. Becoming

persuaded, however, of the futility of his efforts to stem the actual trend of events, he asked to be relieved of his command. Although he could boast of a distinguished military career, Lord Aylmer had little experience in the administration of civil government. Whether to his advantage or not, he approached the Canadian situation as a total stranger, free from prejudice and from embarrassing connections with either of the contesting factions.

His administration witnessed a series of rapid movements which visibly transformed the complexion of the French-Canadian party, and committed it to a definite policy which led inevitably to the resort to violence. The concessions by the Imperial Government had brought about only a temporary settlement and the Assembly was still dissatisfied. In 1834 it embodied its grievances in "Ninety-two Resolutions," which were forwarded to the British Government. A Commission was sent by the latter as a result in 1835 to investigate the affairs of the Province, one of the commissioners, Lord Gosford, being subsequently appointed Governor-General. In reporting, the commissioners recommended that the entire revenue be handed over to the Assembly in return for a permanent "civil list," but they advised against an elective Legislative Council which the Assembly demanded. The report of the Commission failed, however, to conciliate this body. In April 1835 Aylmer was recalled.

In the years 1832 and 1834, during Lord Aylmer's administration, Asiatic cholera was brought to Lower Canada by the immigrants

—then pouring into the Eastern Townships and Upper Canada. The plague wrought destruction broadcast throughout the Province.

The "Royal William," the first ship to cross the Atlantic propelled all the way by steam, was a Canadian vessel built in the yards of Campbell and Black at Quebec City in 1831. She made her memorable voyage in 1833, sailing from Pictou, Nova Scotia, on August 18th, and arriving at Gravesend (London) after a passage of 25 days. The "Royal William" had primarily been constructed for service between Quebec and Halifax. The launch was a gala event, Lord Aylmer, the Governor-General of Canada, being there as the representative of royalty, and the ceremony of naming the vessel being performed by Lady Aylmer in the presence of an immense crowd.

It is Lord Aylmer who has had placed in the Ursuline Convent chapel of Quebec City, where the body of Montcalm, its gallant defender, was buried after the battle of the Plains of Abraham, the marble slab to that noble soldier's memory which may be seen there.



Gosford

(30th Governor-General of Canada)

1835--1838.

GOSFORD

(30th Governor-General of Canada.)

1835—1838.

A *RCHIBALD Acheson, second Earl of Gosford* was the head of the special Commission of three—his associates being Sir Charles Grey and Sir George Gipps—appointed in 1835 by the British Government to inquire into the nature of the Canadian grievances and the best method of remedying them. Their report was extremely conservative, not to say reactionary. For instance: The protection of the interests of the English-speaking minority in Lower Canada was inconsistent with an elective Legislative Council; the responsibility of the Governor-General to the Crown was incompatible with a responsible Executive Council. They even went so far as to recommend that the Howick Act of 1831, by which the control of the Crown revenue was surrendered to the Assembly—the one concession made to the Quebec Assem-

bly—, should be repealed. Acting upon this report, Lord John Russell, who was at the time Home Secretary and leader of the British House of Commons, carried in this assembly a series of resolutions based on the Commission's recommendations and specifically refusing the more important constitutional changes advocated by the Lower Canada Assembly. These recommendations as stated above, rejected the demand for an elective Legislative Council or a responsible Executive. Moreover, seeing that the Assembly continued to refuse to vote supplies for the payment of public officials and the arrears, which in 1837 amounted to nearly £150,000, these resolutions proposed that the Governor-General should be authorized to pay the expenses of the administration and all arrears from whatever funds should be in the hands of the receiver-general of the Province. The financial question was thus reopened, and the intention of the British Government was declared to give the Assembly control of the public revenue on condition of its granting supply for the expenses of the administration of justice and the principal officers of the civil Government. The death of King William IV in 1837 and the accession of Queen Victoria served to postpone the introduction of the measure, which had evidently been accepted by the British Government.

This policy of the Imperial Government increased the public discontent and nothing more was needed to bring things to a head. It gave an opportunity to Papineau and his followers to declare that no redress of grievances could be obtained except by a resort to arms, and poli-

tical strife and conditions being ripe for insurrection in both Upper and Lower Canada, the rebellions of 1837-38 broke out.

The resolutions of the British House of Commons created a sensation in Canada. Public meetings of protest were held throughout the country, particularly in the Montreal and Richelieu districts, and orators freely proclaimed the necessity of revolt, the people organizing themselves into societies called *Sons of Liberty* and *Patriotes*—names that they adopted in all their proceedings—who greeted their leader with cries of “Long live Papineau, our Deliverer!” A deadlock had been reached which permitted of no peaceable means of escape. The House of Assembly being convened on August 18, 1837, the *Patriotes*, as a result of a determination to boycott trade with Britain, appeared in clothes made from homespun cloth (*étouffe du pays*). At this sitting the resolutions of the British House of Commons were officially communicated to the Assembly and formed the text of the latter’s final protest, in which were repeated its demands for constitutional reforms as “the only means for the political connexion with Great Britain to be rendered beneficial to the people of Canada.” The Assembly then declared its willingness to consider the question of supply “whenever we shall no longer be prevented from considering it.” The prospect was hopeless and Lord Gosford prorogued Parliament on August 26th.

The month of November 1837 witnessed several disturbances in Montreal, and on the

advice of a friend, it is said, Papineau retired to St. Hyacinthe—a small town on the south side of the St. Lawrence, some 30 odd miles to the N.E. of Montreal—lest his presence might occasion even greater trouble. Papineau's departure in company with Dr. Edmund O'Callaghan, an Irish-American agitator and sympathizer with the Lower Canada rebellion, alarmed Lord Gosford, and on November 16th orders were issued for their arrest on a charge of high treason.

Soon afterwards two *patriotes*, arrested for encouraging disturbances, were rescued from a company of cavalry by a band of French-Canadians. The rival factions now began to plan, the one for the arrest and the other for the defence of Papineau. The *patriotes* began to assemble at St. Denis and St. Charles, hamlets on the Richelieu river. At St. Charles was erected a "Liberty Column," about which they mustered. St. Denis was another rallying point, and here Dr. Wolfred Nelson, associated politically with Papineau, and a man of great eloquence and remarkable influence, was in command. From Upper Canada came all the regular troops, in spite of the fact that that province also was exposed to a rebellion. The Lieutenant-Governor, not unwisely, trusted to the militia of the younger Province to maintain order within its borders.

Sir John Colborne, an able soldier, who was called from Upper Canada to command the loyal forces, brought a firm hand to bear upon the uprising. Expeditions were sent against the two centres of rebellion. The insurgents at St. Denis,—led by Dr. Wolfred Nelson

GOSFORD

—where they were lodged inside the stone walls of a distillery used as a fortress, showed some courage, and the attacking force was compelled to retire; but the movement against St. Charles where the American, self-styled "General," Brown commanded the defenders, completely routed them. At the news of this victory Nelson's force at St. Denis scattered. The rebellion, save for another uprising in the district of Two-Mountains, at the village of St. Eustache, north of Montreal, under Amury Girod, and later under Dr. Chénier—where the insurgents had gathered in the village church and a number were burned to death in the steeple where they had made a stand—, was now at an end. The village of St. Benoit, equally situated N. of Montreal, and isolated houses elsewhere, were also destroyed by the angry loyalists. The defeat at St. Eustache ended the first and main rebellion in Lower Canada. Very early in the outbreak Papineau had sought safety in the United States.

As will be noted, the troubles in Lower Canada were confined to the Montreal district. Quebec City and Three Rivers took no part in these disturbances. Here again the Roman Catholic clergy of French Canada showed their loyalty; Bishop Lartigue of Montreal, in a pastoral letter to his flock, and the French-Canadian clergy as a whole, set themselves very determinedly against the utterances of the leaders of the *patriotes*. The full influence of the Church, even as of the *seigneurs*, was upon the side of the government.

Meanwhile, in Upper Canada, William Lyon Mackenzie, the editor of the *Colonial Advocate*

—published first at Queenston (Niagara Peninsula) later at York (Toronto), whose columns were mainly devoted to attacks on the government—, and who was chosen as Toronto's first mayor when this city was incorporated in 1834 under its present name from that of York, was following the example of Papineau. Breaking completely with the more moderate Reformers, he issued a declaration setting forth the grievances against the government and renouncing the allegiance to Great Britain. A proclamation, issued by Mackenzie as "Chairman *pro tem.* of the Provincial Government of the State of Upper Canada," called upon the people to rise. The mustering place was Montgomery's Tavern on Yonge Street, a few miles north of Toronto. The object of the insurgents was to seize the military stores in the City Hall, but the prompt arming of the loyal inhabitants frustrated the plan. 500 militia men advanced against the 400 half-armed rebels and after a slight skirmish put them to flight. Mackenzie fled to the United States and at once established his headquarters at Navy Island in the Niagara river, near the Canadian shore (above the Falls), where he and his followers, calling themselves "Patriots," established a Provisional Government. The steamer *Caroline* was made use of to carry supplies to his camp. One night a band of loyal volunteers, acting under instructions from Colonel MacNab, put out from the Canadian bank in row-boats to capture the enemy's vessel. Though lying under the guns of the American fort, the *Caroline* was cut loose, set on fire, and sent over the falls. Mackenzie soon

abandoned Navy Island and withdrew to the United States.

Sir Francis Bond Head, who had resigned the lieutenant-governorship of Upper Canada rather than carry out the instructions of the Colonial Office to appoint Reformers to his Council, was succeeded by Sir George Arthur. The new lieutenant-governor was inflexible in his determination to punish severely those who had taken part in the rebellion. Matthews and Lount, two of the leaders, were tried, convicted, and hanged. The jails were filled with prisoners. It was only the interference of the Imperial Government that prevented further executions.

In the following year, 1838, several attempts were made from the United States to invade Canada. At Prescott in Upper Canada a Polish exile named Von Schultz, at the head of 200 men, was defeated by a party of volunteers from Kingston and captured. Von Schultz and eleven of his men were executed. At Sandwich (opposite Detroit) a party of 450 invaders engaged in a fierce struggle with about 200 of the Canadian militia. There was some bloodshed on both sides, but the invaders were driven back. Three of the prisoners were executed and a number transported, but the majority were pardoned.

In the Maritime Provinces the Reformers were guided by such moderate statesmen as Howe and Wilmot, who were not to be outdone in loyalty by their most conservative opponents. What Papineau and Mackenzie were in the Canadas, Joseph Howe was in Nova Scotia: the leader of the people. Like them he threw in his weight with the cause of reform, but he

strove to attain his ends by constitutional means always. Under his leadership the Nova Scotia Assembly succeeded in bringing about some important reforms. The Council was forced to discontinue its secret sessions. In 1837 "Twelve Resolutions" were drawn up by the Assembly and submitted to the British Government. The result was several decided changes. In New Brunswick the cause of reform found its greatest champion in Lemuel Allan Wilmot, a young lawyer of United Empire Loyalist ancestry, who entered the Assembly in 1836 and became the first native-born lieutenant-governor of his Province (1868-73). Ability and eloquence soon put him at the head of his party, and later won him a place on a delegation sent to England to petition the home government for much-needed reforms. Many of these were granted as a consequence. Thus, throughout this critical epoch, the British government was induced to take a greater interest in colonial affairs as well as realize the colonies' insistent demand for self-government; and the events of these fateful years mark in truth the beginning of the movement to make colonial independence the basis of Empire unity.

Lord Gosford returned to England in February 1838, and Colborne was appointed administrator.



Durham

(31st Governor-General of Canada).

1838.

DURHAM

(31st Governor-General of Canada).

1838.

JOHN George Lambton, *first Earl of Durham*, a nobleman of great ability, who had won distinction in Imperial politics as a Reformer, was sent out as Governor-General and High Commissioner to inquire into, and adjust, Provincial difficulties. This distinguished statesman remained at the head of affairs in Canada but five months.

The immediate result of the rebellion in Lower Canada was the suspension of the Constitution in that Province, by a special Act of the British Parliament, until November 1st, 1842, its government during that period to revert to the system in vogue prior to 1791 (year of the Constitutional Act, dividing Canada—or the Province of Quebec of that

time—into Upper and Lower Canada), consisting of the Governor-General and a Special Council appointed by the Crown. The Imperial government had by now convinced itself of the urgent need for a change in the administration of the colonies, and this increased interest found expression in Lord Durham's appointment. For this very responsible position of Special Commissioner Lord Durham was selected by Palmerston—then Secretary of Foreign Affairs—himself.

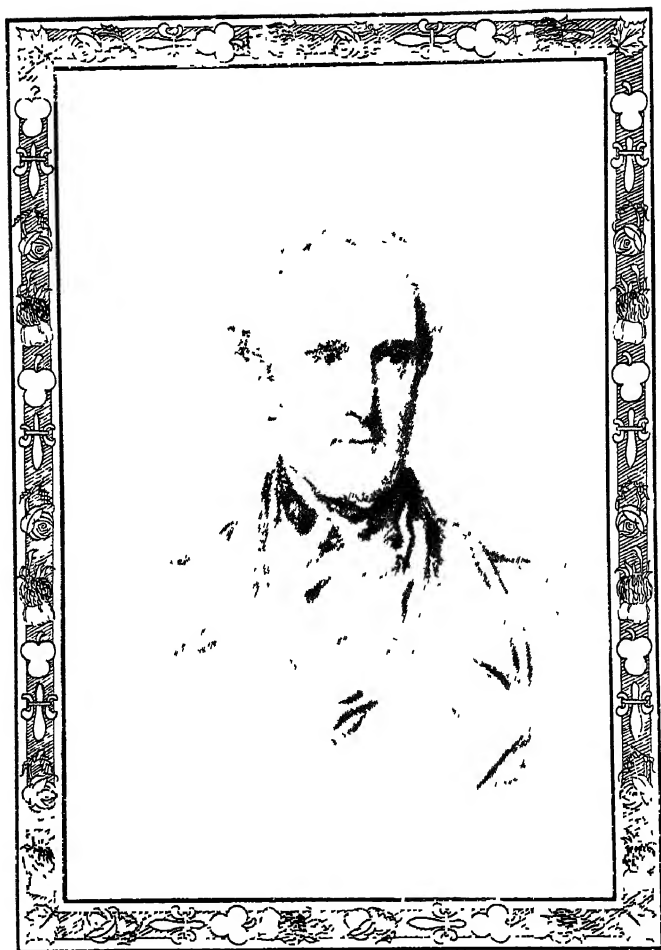
The disposition of the political prisoners, instigators of the late rising, had still to be determined. The course which was finally adopted by Durham was to secure from them a confession of guilt and an expression of willingness to waive a public trial. Thus throwing themselves on the Governor's mercy, they were promised lenient treatment. Many of the ringleaders had fled to the United States. Durham, called upon to deal with the prisoners, extended amnesty to the majority of these; but eight, including Dr. Wolfred Nelson, Robert Bouchette, and Viger, were banished to Bermuda, while Papineau, Robert Nelson, O'Callaghan, Cartier, and others beyond Canadian jurisdiction, were officially exiled and threatened with death if they returned to the Province; the Governor, however, being given power to suspend the punishment of any one of those affected by the decree. This ordinance, which was passed on the day of the coronation of Queen Victoria, June 28th, 1838, was disallowed by the home government, on the ground that the Governor could not sentence certain British

subjects in custody to transportation without a form of trial, nor could he subject them, and others not in prison, to death in case of their return to the country, without permission of the authorities. So severely was Durham criticized at home that he resigned, and left Canada in deep indignation at the manner in which his acts had been judged in England, largely through the influence of Lord Brougham, his personal enemy.

Short as was his administration, it was long enough to admit of his obtaining a grasp of the political situation in all the Provinces. The now famous "Durham Report"—the most important result of his mission—issued in January 1839, is one of the most remarkable documents relating to Canadian history. Durham sent agents to each Province to inquire into the state of the government and the grievances of the people. He also invited the lieutenant-governors of the Maritime Provinces and members of their Legislatures to meet him in conference at Quebec City. The report, based upon facts thus carefully gathered, criticized fearlessly the existing provincial governments, asserting that "while the present state of things is allowed to last, the actual inhabitants of these Provinces have no security for person or property, no enjoyment of what they possess, no stimulus to industry." The report contained, among others, the following recommendations: that Upper and Lower Canada be united, in order to remove race jealousies; that the Executive Council be made responsible to the Legislature; that an intercolonial railway be built, with a view to

DURHAM

uniting all the Provinces, and, finally, that municipal institutions be established. Thus was brought about, through the Imperial government's promptness in acting upon the suggestions made in Lord Durham's Report, the Union Act of 1840-41, under which Upper and Lower Canada were united and given equal representation in a common Legislative Assembly.



Colborne

From an engraving in the Dominion Archives, Ottawa

(32nd Governor-General of Canada).

1838-1839.

COLBORNE

(32nd Governor-General of Canada).

1838-1839.

SOON after the departure of Lord Durham, who died in England not many months later, *Sir John Colborne, first Baron Seaton*, commander-in-chief of the forces in Canada, became Governor-General. Colborne was an officer of both military and civil experience. As military secretary he had in 1808 accompanied Sir John Moore during his expeditions to Sweden and Portugal, and was recommended for promotion in the dying words of his chief. He served with Wellington in the Peninsula and was prominent in the victorious campaigns of 1813 (Spain) and 1814 (South of France) under Wellington. At the Battle of Waterloo (1815) he was in command of the 52nd, which led in the rout of Napoleon's Old

Guard. In 1828 he was appointed lieutenant-governor of Upper Canada, which position he held till the end of 1835.

Colborne, on taking office in November 1838, was called upon to put down a second and miniature rebellious movement in the Montreal district, led by Robert Nelson, brother of Wolfred Nelson, then in exile. At Caughnawaga (opposite Lachine, Montreal), Montarville (Co. Chambly), Beauharnois (on the St. Lawrence, W. of Montreal), and at Odelltown (Co. St. Johns), a village close to the United States frontier, the insurgents made a stand from time to time, but were soon scattered. The promptness and severity of Colborne's measures prevented the situation from getting beyond control and the Government now decided to make an example of men who had not appreciated the clemency previously shown their friends. Hundreds of prisoners were taken and the gaols were filled. The Montreal prisoners were court-martialled and 92 condemned to death. Of these 12 only were executed, while the remainder were transported to Australia.

Colborne returned to England in the autumn of 1839. In 1860 he was made field-marshal, and died at Torquay in 1863.



Sydenham

From a painting in the Château de Ramezay, Montreal

(33rd Governor-General of Canada).

1839-1841.

SYDENHAM

(33rd Governor-General of Canada).

1839-1841.

CHARLES *Edward Poulett Thomson*, later *first Baron Sydenham*, was appointed immediately to succeed Sir John Colborne when the latter left Canada. The Imperial Government had lost no time in acting upon the suggestions made in Lord Durham's report, and Mr. Poulett Thomson was entrusted with the task of bringing about the proposed change. In 1830 Thomson was President of the Board of Trade, with a seat in the Cabinet. In England he was considered a master of the questions of public finance and was known to have decided Free Trade proclivities. In fact after the death of Huskisson—one of the protagonists of free trade—he was regarded as

one of the leading exponents of the new commercial heresies. A reconstruction of the British Ministry having become necessary, Thomson was offered the choice of the Chancellorship of the Exchequer or the Governor-Generalship of Canada. He selected the latter office in preference.

In the autumn of 1839, a few weeks after his arrival, the question of the union of the two Provinces was laid by Thomson before the Special Council of Lower Canada—which had conducted the affairs of that Province during and since the rebellion—and the Legislature of Upper Canada, respectively. Both bodies having finally favoured the proposal, the Imperial Parliament in 1840 passed a measure entitled "An Act to reunite the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada and for the government of Canada," which became law in July of that year and came into force on Feb. 10th, 1841. Thomson, in recognition of his services in bringing about the Union, had been created Baron Sydenham. The Union Act provided for a Legislative Council of not less than 20 members, appointed by the Crown, and for a Legislative Assembly in which each of the united Provinces would be evenly represented, in all by 84 members, elected in equal numbers by each Province. The English language only was to be used in the legislative records. Each Legislative Assembly was to have a duration of four years, unless dissolved by the Governor-General within that time. A session of the Legislature was to be held at least once a year. The revenues within the control of the two Legislatures were combined in one revenue

fund, which was made liable for a permanent annual allowance of £75,000 for certain specified salaries. In return for this civil list the Crown surrendered to the Assembly control of the hereditary and territorial revenues.

The selection of a capital was arousing lively interest, Quebec, Montreal, Ottawa, Kingston, and Toronto, being rival claimants. Quebec and Toronto were ruled out on account of their distance from the centre of the new Union; Ottawa was unable to provide proper accommodation for the Government establishment, and the choice was thus confined to Kingston and Montreal. The former was ultimately chosen. From the standpoint of defence—which was then a most important consideration—Kingston was considered to possess a distinct advantage; likewise for political reasons it was regarded as more suitable.

The passage of the Union Act of 1840 was the commencement of a new era in the constitutional history of Canada as well as of the other Provinces. The most valuable result was the admission of the all-important principle that the Ministry advising the Governor-General should possess the confidence of the representatives of the people assembled in Parliament. Lord Durham, in his report, had pointed out most forcibly the injurious consequences of the opposite system which had so long prevailed in the Provinces. His views had such influence on the minds of the statesmen then at the head of Imperial affairs that, after the Union, the British Government's instructions to the Governor-General were to administer the affairs of the united Provinces

SYDENHAM

"in accordance with the well-understood wishes of the people," and to employ in the public service "only those persons who had obtained the general confidence and esteem of the inhabitants of the Province." The Governor-General must oppose the wishes of the Assembly "only when the honour of the Crown or the interests of the Empire were deeply concerned." Lord Sydenham summoned the first Union Parliament to meet at Kingston in 1841, and in addressing its members the Governor expressed himself as bound by the principles of responsible government.

Sydenham's career was cut short by a riding accident and he died at Kingston (Canada) in September 1841.



Bagot

From a portrait in the Dominion Archives, Ottawa.

(34th Governor-General of Canada).

1842—1843.

BAGOT

(34th Governor-General of Canada).

1842—1843.

SIR *Charles Bagot* was selected by the Peel cabinet in England as successor to Lord Sydenham. From the latter's death in September 1841 to the time of the new Governor taking office a few months later, the country had been administered by Sir Richard Downes Jackson. Bagot had previously filled the positions of minister plenipotentiary in France, at Washington, St Petersburg, and The Hague. In the history of diplomacy Bagot's name is often quoted as the negotiator of the Rush-Bagot treaty (1817)—still in force—between Great Britain and the United States, whereby the armaments of each nation on the Great Lakes were limited; also as being British ambassador at St. Petersburg when the agreement (1825) defining the North West boundary

of British North America was concluded with Russia.

Among the instructions received by Bagot, upon his appointment as Governor-in-chief, from Stanley (who subsequently succeeded to the earldom of Derby, becoming 14th earl), then Colonial Secretary under Peel, the following lines are worthy of reproduction here: "You cannot," had written Stanley, "too early and too distinctly give it to be understood that you enter the Province (United Canada) with the determination to know no distinction of natural origin or religious creed." Fortified by these, Bagot, during the 14 months of his administration, truly prepared, by his discretion and temper, Canada for the self-government which she was soon to receive at the hands of Lord Elgin.

In the new Assembly of United Canada there were at least four parties, which may be described as follows: "Family Compact"* Tories, moderate Tories, moderate Reformers or Liberals, and the radical Reformers. Against this combination the Reform party at the outset made little headway. The actions of the Family Compact in dealing with the Reformers

NOTE: The term "Family Compact" was applied in Upper Canada, in the parlance of those days, to an official class which held within its control practically the government of the Province. The bench, the pulpit, the banks, the public offices, were all more or less under its influence. Successive Governors-General submitted first to its ascendancy and allowed it to have the real direction of affairs. Many of its members were bound by family ties; most were residents of the same city and belonged to the same church, the Episcopal. It was this close union of the ruling class that gave rise to the expression "Family Compact." In Upper Canada it dominated the two Councils and controlled land grants.

were often unjust. In the ranks of the Reformers were at times found a few men who, having recently come over from the United States, openly advocated republican principles of government. Little wonder, then, that sons of Loyalists, as many members of the Family Compact were, should be severe in their attitude towards those whom they regarded as disloyal to Great Britain. On the other hand it must be remembered that among the Reformers were many men also of Loyalist blood, who, while strongly advocating responsible government, never wavered in their allegiance to Great Britain.

As soon as the first Union Assembly met, an Executive Council had been appointed from both parties (Tory and Reformer), including Mr. W. H. Draper, a strong supporter of the Family Compact, and Mr. Robert Baldwin, the recognised leader of the Upper Canadian Reformers. But this coalition plan did not prove a success, and in the following year Draper and the other members of his party were forced to resign. Bagot began his wise policy by appointing a distinguished French-Canadian, Vallières de St. Réal, to the chief justiceship of Montreal, and a moderate reformer, Francis Hincks, who was thoroughly trusted by the Reform party, to be inspector-general of accounts. Through the new Governor-General's sagacity a new administration was formed which represented the Reformers of both sections of the country. This was the LaFontaine-Baldwin ministry, so named from the two leaders, Sir Louis Hippolyte LaFontaine, of Lower Canada—the recognized leader of the French party—(whom

Bagot had sent for), and Mr. Robert Baldwin, of Upper Canada. This plan of adopting a double name was continued, with one exception, down to the time of Confederation (1867).

The results of Sir Charles Bagot's policy in Canada were thus immediate and beneficial. Administration on sound lines became once more possible, and Bagot's ministers stood by his memory in loyal defence, long after loyalty to the man could be of any personal advantage to them.

It was Bagot who, in 1842, recommended to the Secretary of State for the Colonies that a Geographical Survey of Canada should be begun. Stanley fell in at once with the suggestion and placed the matter in the hands of Sir William Logan. Work was begun in 1843. Sir William Logan filled the position of director from 1842 to 1869, when ill-health compelled his resignation. He, however, continued to act as supervising head until a short time before his death in 1875.

The complete ruin of Bagot's health soon deprived Canada, however, of his valuable services and he died at Kingston, Ont. (as had his predecessor Lord Sydenham), in May 1843.



Metcalfe

(35th Governor-General of Canada).

1843—1845.

METCALFE

(35th Governor-General of Canada).

1843—1845.

SIR *Charles Theophilus, first Baron Metcalfe*, was appointed to succeed Bagot. An experienced colonial ruler, he had been born into the tradition of Imperial service and few among the public servants of Britain offered a better administrative record. From an early age he had undertaken most responsible work in India and had passed through all the stages of Indian promotion until he had been chosen to fill temporarily the highest place, after Lord Bentinck, Governor-General of India—whose administration there is memorable by the abolition of suttee (widow-burning) and the suppression of the Thugs, a now extinct fraternity of religious fanatical assassins (stranglers) and robbers—, retired. Passing from India, he had done work of great

importance as Governor of Jamaica. In Canada, however, Metcalfe, being a ruler of the old school, and having yet to learn the Imperial lesson of audacious faith, was not disposed to recognize the principle of responsible government. Holding such views, he was not long in breaking with the LaFontaine-Baldwin ministry. His first unconstitutional act was the appointment of officials, and his contention for such a privilege, without consulting his ministers. The latter at once resigned office. A general election followed, the outcome of which was eagerly watched in all the Provinces.

The contest was bitter, both the Governor-General and his late ministers having strong supporters. Sir Charles claimed that, as he represented the Crown, he had the right to make appointments upon his own authority. The ministers, on the other hand, contended that they, as the representatives of the people, should be consulted in the choice of all officials. The Governor found a staunch supporter in Dr. Egerton Ryerson, a famous Methodist, who wrote several pamphlets in defence of the former's action. The case of the ministers was ably upheld by a young Scotsman, George Brown, the founder of the *Toronto Globe*, the leading organ of the Reform party. When the election returns were in, it was found that the Conservatives had a majority, and that the Governor had been sustained. Mr. Draper formed a new ministry. The successful candidate (Conservative) for Kingston in this election, it is interesting to note, was Mr. John Alexander Macdonald (later Sir John A. Mac-

donald, Premier of Canada), who thus first entered public life. Broadly speaking, the issue was self-government. This at least was what the Reformers or Liberals contended for, while Sir Charles Metcalfe believed that in resisting them he was fighting against forces which tended to disintegrate the Empire. His attitude made him virtually the leader of the Conservative, or Tory, party in Canada during the election of 1844, and Macdonald in his election address had accepted his view. The entry into public life of George Brown and John A. Macdonald was an important event in the history of Canada.

In 1844 the seat of government was moved from Kingston to Montreal.

The anxiety of the British Government to bury in oblivion the unfortunate events of 1837-38 was proved by an amnesty that was granted, soon after the Union of 1841, to the banished offenders. William Lyon Mackenzie, Louis Joseph Papineau, and Wolfred Nelson came back and the two first were elected again to Parliament. They found, however, upon their return from exile, that political power had now passed into the hands of men who were satisfied with gradual progress in reform, and they never exercised any influence in the future. Mackenzie again published a newspaper, but in this sphere also his sway was gone. Both realized that the day of rash statesmanship had passed, and Papineau, back in his own Province, saw for himself that the people were being guided by men of calm judgment and moderate views, men of whom LaFontaine was a fair type. Retiring at length to his picturesque

home, hidden by the overhanging groves of the Ottawa River at Montebello, he passed in peace the closing years of a life which had long been tossed by the storm of politics.

In 1842 (August 9) the Ashburton Treaty, defining and settling finally the boundary line between Canada and the State of Maine, was signed at Washington by Lord Ashburton (sent from England with full powers) representing Great Britain, and Daniel Webster (at the time American Secretary of State) on behalf of the United States.

Metcalfe, whatever his political errors as Canadian Governor-General, possessed sterling qualities and impressed all by his charity and generosity. According to credible evidence, he had unlimited patience in granting and enduring interviews. Before arriving in Canada he had been afflicted by a cancerous growth on the cheek, and throughout 1845 his ailment complicated and grew worse—even involving the loss of sight of one eye. In the autumn of that year, finding it impossible to perform his official functions any longer, he took advantage of the permission granted him to transfer the provisional charge of the government to Earl Cathcart. He died, unmarried, near Basingstoke, Hampshire, September 5, 1846.



Cathcart

(36th Governor-General of Canada).

1846—1847.

CATHCART

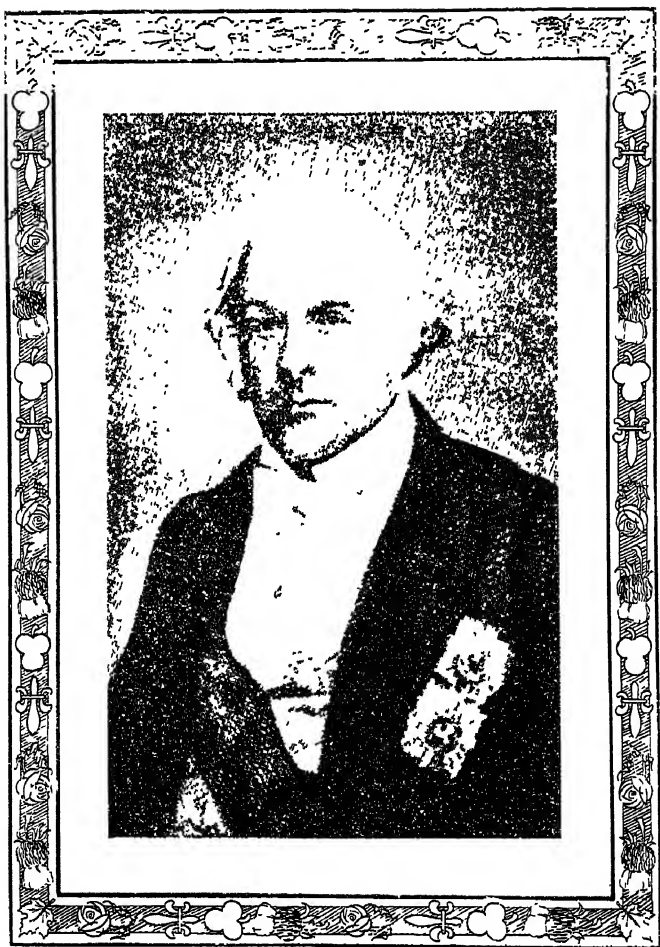
(36th Governor-General of Canada).

1846—1847.

CHARLES Murray, *second Earl Cathcart*, had been Administrator of Canada since the preceding autumn when in April 1846 he received the nomination of Governor-General. A British soldier and scientist, the son of the 1st Earl Cathcart, and long known as Viscount Greenock, he saw service in the unsuccessful Walcheren (Holland) expedition against the French Imperial troops in 1809, also in the Peninsular War, being present at several important battles there, and in the Waterloo campaign. Scientific investigation then occupied him for some years, one of the results being the discovery of a mineral which he called Greenockite (sulphide of cadmium). Cathcart, throughout his Administration and the subsequent short period of nine months

CATHCART

during which he held office as Governor-General—he left in January 1847—, followed the unpopular policy of his predecessor, Sir Charles Metcalfe; but the principles and the establishment of political liberty were by now all-conquering. The concession of government by the people was at last to have its free operation under Cathcart's immediate successor, Lord Elgin—the last real political leader among the Governors-General, who was last because it fell to him to secure the final triumph of responsible government. Lord Cathcart died at St. Leonards (Hastings), Sussex, in 1859.



Elgin

From an engraving in the Dominion Archives, Ottawa

(37th Governor-General of Canada).

1847—1854.

ELGIN

(37th Governor-General of Canada).

1847—1854.

JAMES Bruce, *eighth Earl of Elgin*, the new appointee, belonged to the most distinguished school of politicians and administrators produced in England during the nineteenth century—the Peelites. His fellow-students at Oxford included Gladstone, Dalhousie, and Canning, and all of them reflected the calm wisdom, the faculty for imperial and objective judgment, and the love of peace and order, which were a characteristic of their great master. Elgin's place in the parliamentary development of Canada is outstanding, and the accomplishment of Canadian constitutional government, obtained at first through him, is of a piece with the reorganization of India, which Dalhousie superintended, the

revolution in commercial theory and practice secured by Peel himself, and the beginning of administrative reform in Ireland made by Gladstone.

The Provinces were now to enjoy the fruits of responsible government—control through the Executive of all appointments, of Crown lands, and the expenditure of money. Having once recognized the right of the Provinces to self-government, Great Britain made even further concessions. The most important of these was the surrender of tariff control. Hitherto Great Britain had held a monopoly of colonial trade. According to the Navigation Laws none but British-built ships could carry goods to and from the colonies. Colonial tariffs were fixed by the home government. For some years a movement had been on foot in Great Britain for free trade, and in 1846 the British markets were thrown open to the world. At the same time the Provinces were given the power to repeal any tariff Acts which had been passed by the Imperial government. Three years later the Navigation Laws were repealed and the Provinces left free to control their own trade. In the same year Great Britain turned over to the Provinces the entire control of the postal service and in 1851 Canadian postage stamps were first issued. It was this liberal treatment which made it possible for George Brown, one of the leaders of the Canadian Reform party, speaking a year later, to say of Great Britain: "Frankly and generously she has, one by one, surrendered all the rights which were once held necessary to the condition of a colony—the patronage of

the Crown, the right over the public domain, the civil list, the customs, the post-office, have all been relinquished."

On his appointment as Governor-General, Lord Elgin received from the Imperial government positive instructions "to act generally upon the advice of his executive council, and to receive as members of that body those persons who might be pointed out to him as entitled to do so by their possessing the confidence of the Assembly." No Act of Parliament was necessary to effect this important change; the insertion and alteration of a few paragraphs in the Governor's instructions were sufficient. Elgin was, besides, Lord Durham's son-in-law. He was the husband of the daughter of the man who had awakened hopes of popular control in Canada; and the name of Durham was a personal link between Elgin and the Reformers—who looked to Durham as their first real friend in high quarters. By 1848 the Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and by 1851 Prince Edward Island, were in the full enjoyment of a system of self-government, which had been so long advocated by their ablest public men; and the results have proved, on the whole, eminently favourable to political as well as material development.

In the historic annals of the great contest that was fought for responsible government some names stand out most prominently. Foremost is that of Joseph Howe, the eminent Liberal whose eloquence charmed the people of Nova Scotia for many years. In his early life he was a printer and an editor, but he be-

came leader of his party soon after he entered the Legislature, and died a Lieutenant-Governor of his native province. In New Brunswick Lemuel A. Wilmot," afterwards a judge and lieutenant-governor, was a man of much energy, persuasive eloquence, and varied learning. Robert Baldwin, of Upper Canada, was a statesman of great discretion, who showed the people how their liberties could be best promoted by wise and constitutional agitation. Sir Louis Hippolyte La Fontaine was one of the most distinguished and capable men that French-Canada has ever given to the Legislature and the Bench. By his political alliance with Mr. Baldwin—the second La Fontaine-Baldwin administration lasted from 1848 until 1851—the principles of responsible government were placed on a durable basis. In the mother country, Great Britain, the names of Lord John Russell, Mr. Gladstone and Earl Grey—Colonial Secretaries from 1839 to 1852—are especially associated with the concession of those great principles which have enlarged the sphere of self-government in the colonies of the British Crown.

No sooner was the principle of responsible government adopted that it was seriously threatened in the Canadian Legislature. In the first session of the Union Parliament compensation had already been granted to those loyalists of Upper Canada whose property was unnecessarily or wantonly destroyed during the rebellion of 1837-38. The claim was then raised on behalf of persons similarly situated in Lower Canada. The Conservative Draper government of 1845 agreed to pay a

small amount of rebellion losses as a sequence of a report made by commissioners appointed to inquire into the subject. The La Fontaine-Baldwin ministry which succeeded it then introduced a measure (the Rebellion Losses Bill, 1849) which proposed to vote a sum of money to indemnify the loyal subjects of Lower Canada, that is, all those persons who had not taken part in the rebellion, but were justly entitled to compensation for actual losses. This proposal, when formerly made, had brought a storm of protest from certain quarters. The ultra-Tory opposition at once raised the cry "No pay to rebels," and some of them in their anger even issued a manifesto in favour of annexation to the United States. Yet the measure was passed by the Legislature and submitted to Lord Elgin for his signature. Every effort was thereupon made to induce the Governor-General to exercise his power of veto. It was a critical moment for responsible government. To veto a bill which had met with the approval of the majority of the Legislature would be to ignore responsibility in government. But Lord Elgin was firm and assented to the Bill. When the news spread that it had been signed by the Governor, Montreal became the scene of a disgraceful riot. As Lord Elgin drove away from the Parliament Buildings—at that time in Montreal—he was grossly insulted, a mob following his carriage and pelting it with stones and rotten eggs. The rioters next turned their attention to the Parliament House which they set on fire. In a few hours the House, its library, and the state records, were in ashes. This very dis-

creditable episode in the political history of Canada proved the extremes to which even men professing extreme loyalty can be carried at times of political passion and racial difficulty.

Disgraced by the destructive act of her disorderly citizens, Montreal forfeited the right to be the seat of government. For several years Canadian Parliament was a homeless wanderer, meeting alternately in Toronto and Quebec City, for a term of four years in each place. Finally, later on, Queen Victoria was asked to choose a permanent place of meeting, and in 1858 her choice was made public. Bytown,* a village on the Ottawa river, became the capital. The name of Bytown gave place to that of Ottawa, by which the present capital of Canada is so well known to the world. The Queen's choice was a wise one. The selection of anyone of the older cities would have aroused the jealousy of the others. Moreover, standing back from the frontier, Ottawa was removed from the dangers to which the border towns were exposed in times of war.

Up to that time very little progress had been made in local (municipal) self-government in Canada. The agitation for self-government in local affairs had been carried on by the Reform party side by side with the struggle for responsible government, but little had been

TE. In 1827 the Rideau Canal was constructed, at a cost of \$2,500,000, to connect Lower Canada, via the Ottawa River, with Lake Ontario, to obviate the necessity of vessels ascending the St. Lawrence River, and to escape the enemy's fire. The settlement which grew up at the Ottawa end of this canal was named Bytown, after Col. John By, of the Engineers, who superintended its construction.

accomplished owing to the determined opposition of the governing classes. Some few districts, villages, towns and cities, had been granted limited powers, but these were of little importance. Lord Durham had recommended in his remarkable report the establishment of a good system of municipal institutions, and the Draper government of 1841 had endeavoured to obtain popular support by passing a Local Government Act. But this Act did little more than give a partially elective government to the districts affected. It remained for the LaFontaine-Baldwin administration which followed to establish in one comprehensive statute the entire system of local government upon the democratic basis of popular election. The Municipal Corporation Act of 1849 established municipal institutions in Canada on the basis that they exist to-day. This control over local affairs has proved of great benefit in training the people in the art of government.

Both Baldwin and LaFontaine retired from the government in 1851 and were succeeded by Sir Francis Hincks and Auguste Norbert Morin, who formed the Hincks-Morin ministry. Under the administration of these two energetic leaders many important measures were introduced, particularly in regard to the construction of railways; and with railway development must always be associated the name of Sir Francis Hincks, an able statesman of the Liberal party and financial expert, who recognized the necessities of a new country. Reforms were also made in the currency, although the decimal system was not intro-

duced into Canada until 1858. About the same time also the representation of each of the Provinces in the Legislature was increased from 42 to 65. Dissatisfaction, however, among the extreme members of the Reform party, owing to the slowness of the government in dealing with a number of controversial questions, caused the fall of the ministry. On the resignation of Hincks in 1854, Lord Elgin called upon Sir Allan MacNab, the leader of the Conservative party, to form a government. With the assistance of Morin, who had a strong following among the French-speaking members, Sir Allan succeeded in forming a ministry (MacNab-Morin administration, 1854-55) which had the confidence of the Assembly. The more moderate Reformers, alarmed at the advanced views of a section among Upper Canadian members, also strongly supported the government. The new administration, one of the leading members of which was John A. (later Sir John) Macdonald, as Attorney-General for Upper Canada, at once proceeded to deal with many questions which had remained unsettled and were causing trouble in the country.

The first year of the new ministry, 1854, was marked by events of great importance. Standing in the way of progress were two obstacles: the Clergy Reserves in Upper Canada and the Seigneurial Tenure in Lower Canada. The first was largely one between the Church of England, the Church of Scotland (at the time also an established church), or Episcopalians, and the dissenting bodies. This question of Clergy Reserves grew out of the

grant to the first-named Churches in Canada, by the Imperial Act (Constitutional Act or Canada Act) of 1791, of large tracts of land in Upper Canada (about one-seventh of the ungranted lands of the Province, set apart for their exclusive support), and created much bitterness of feeling for a quarter of a century or more. The Reformers found in it abundant material for exciting the jealousies of all the Protestant denominations who wished to see the Church of England and the Church of Scotland deprived of the advantages which they alone derived from this valuable source of revenue. The leading adherents of the "Family Compact" belonged to the Church of England and opposed every effort that was made to dispose of these lands for the support of education and other public purposes. The Methodists, who in Upper Canada outnumbered the Church of England, had for years an additional grievance in the fact that their ministers were not allowed at first to solemnize marriages, and it was not until 1829 that this disability was removed by the Legislature. In Lower Canada the Seigneurial Tenure had always been a hindrance to the development of an independent farming class. The discontent arising from these two questions had been increasing so steadily that action could be no longer delayed. On the same day (1854) bills were passed by the MacNab-Morin administration dealing with both matters. The Clergy Reserves were secularized, and all connection between Church and State in Upper Canada was thereby brought to an end. The change was made with great fairness and in

a way that seemed to satisfy all parties concerned. The Seigniorial Tenure was abolished in Lower Canada, the *seigneurs*, of course, being recompensed for the surrender of their rights, the burden of expense falling almost entirely on the government.

In the same year free trade was established between the Canadian Provinces and the United States. The Reciprocity Treaty (1854), arranged chiefly through the efforts of Lord Elgin, provided for an exchange between the two countries of the products of the sea, the field, the forest, and the mine. The Americans were admitted to Canadian fisheries, and also to the navigation of Canadian rivers and canals, while the Canadians were permitted to fish in American waters, and Lake Michigan was opened to their vessels. The new arrangement was beneficial to both countries, the Canadian farmers, miners and lumbermen finding it especially profitable. The treaty was to remain in force for ten years, at the end of which time either country could bring it to a close by giving a year's notice. In 1854 also, an Act was passed by the Imperial Parliament making the Legislative Council of Canada elective, instead of appointed; thus the particular measure which the French-Canadians had pressed on the British government for several years was conceded. French soon again became the official language by an amendment to the Union Act.

Elgin remained Governor-in-chief of Canada till December, 1854—a period of eight years. In 1857 he was sent by the British Government as envoy to China where he negotiated several important treaties. In 1862 and 1863

ELGIN

he was Viceroy of India, where he died November 20, 1863.

Elgin was the son of the 7th Earl of Elgin (whom he succeeded in 1841), who was Ambassador to Turkey and who brought from Athens to England—where they rest now in the British Museum in London—the famous “Elgin Marbles” collection of sculptures, including a large part of the frieze of the Parthenon.

To this great Governor-General and his diplomatic work while in office in Canada, the following tribute has been rendered: “They keep the Abbey and St. Paul’s for the warriors and men of crises; but the British Empire stands because there have been men wise enough to avoid crises, great enough to prepare a way for democratic triumphs by subordinating their personal energies to suit the public good. Chief among these stands Elgin.”



Head

(38th Governor-General of Canada)

1854—1861.

HEAD

(38th Governor-General of Canada).

1854—1861.

SIR Edmund Walker Head succeeded Elgin. He was the son of the Rev. Sir John Head, Bart., and had been educated at Winchester and Oriel College, Oxford. For some years he was a tutor at Oxford; he was also called to the bar. In 1838 he succeeded to the baronetcy and in 1841 entered the Civil Service as a Poor Law Commissioner. In 1847 he was made lieutenant-governor of New Brunswick and held this post until he replaced the Earl of Elgin as Governor-General of Canada. Sir Edmund Head was also known as a writer on art, having written a *Handbook of Spanish Painting* and other popular books on art. He in addition published *Ballads and other Poems, original and translated* (1868).

A new political day now dawned on Canadian affairs. The departure of Lord Elgin from Canada was something more than a personal event: it marked the end of one epoch in Canadian Parliamentary history and the beginning of another. Up to 1854 the Governors-General were, even when opposed by public opinion, in every case the foremost figures in politics; and not all the suavity and

diplomacy of Elgin could disguise the fact that his influence over his ministers was deeper than even they realized. Canada had been claiming her own, but the men who put the case, for her and against, were Englishmen and not Canadians. After 1854 a very great change occurs; in which the colony furnishes, so to speak, her own Governors, and the questions come to be less those of principle than of political expediency. Macdonald, Cartier, and Brown, take the place of Sydenham and Elgin, and a policy of ways and means—the adjustment of political machinery to suit local needs—takes the place of the struggle, in principle, for responsible government. Thus the most obvious fact in the years before Confederation (1867) is the diminution in importance of the Governor-General. The two men, Sir Edmund Head and Lord Monck, who held office between 1854 and 1867, though their tenure of office extends over a period equivalent to that occupied by their four predecessors combined, yet hardly enter Canadian Parliamentary history except as accessories.

Explanatory of this shrinking in power is the great increase in national spirit throughout Canada, and the claims made by that spirit for freer play demand attention. With reciprocity with the United States had come prosperity; with prosperity had come independence and a great increase in the number of colonists. The population of Upper Canada had risen from 486,055 in 1842 to 1,393,710 in 1861, while Lower Canada had increased to 1,100,731 in place of 690,496. Education was also playing its part. The strong imperial note in John

A. Macdonald's speeches bears witness to the popular movement by its underlying nationalism; it is Canada, no mean national unit, which begins to offer a filial assistance to the mother country. Canada, then, in politics had come to one of the definite crises that all nations which earn legislative independence have to face. In England it had come after the storm and clamour of the Great Rebellion (1642-1660), when a few English statesmen, Shaftesbury foremost among them, realized that battles had passed from the plain to the assembly hall; that Parliamentary tactics were the mode chosen by the new age for political advance; and that, in future, the evolution of a great party, which might take the place of the declining kingship, meant more for liberty than scores of charters or statutes of liberties.

In Canada there had been the Rebellion and the struggle with Metcalfe; the home rule declarations and democratic practice of Elgin had been the country's Revolution Settlement. It now remained for the Canadian people to prove that their new independence was something more than mere permission to misgovern themselves.

In 1860 the visit of the Prince of Wales—subsequently King Edward VII—to Canada took place and gave rise to many memorable social functions. The Prince sailed from Plymouth in July on board H.M.S. *Hero*, escorted by H.M.S. *Ariadne*, and after calling at St. Johns, Newfoundland, Halifax, Nova Scotia (and thence taking a side trip to St. John and Fredericton, New Brunswick, rejoining his ship at Pictou, N.S.), and Charlottetown,

Prince Edward Island, arrived at Quebec City—the famous Terrace of which, overlooking the river, was crowded with eager and enthusiastic spectators—on the afternoon of August 18th. After spending a few days there, the Prince left for Montreal where he inaugurated the Victoria Bridge just completed—spanning the St. Lawrence at Montreal and connecting Canada with the great railway system of the United States. After visiting the towns of St. Hyacinthe and Sherbrooke, in the Eastern Townships district of Quebec, the Prince proceeded to the new Canadian capital, Ottawa, by way of the beautiful river of that name. Here he laid the foundation-stone of the Parliament Buildings of Canada. The Prince then made a tour of Upper Canada, including Brockville, Belleville, Toronto, London, and Niagara Falls (where he and his suite witnessed Blondin, the celebrated acrobat, crossing on a rope over the awful chasm), and on the return journey Queenston (Queenston Heights), Hamilton, and Windsor (Ont.). Hence the Prince left British America for the United States where he visited the principal cities, including Washington, New York, and Boston, finally taking his departure from America at Portland, Maine, where the royal squadron was in waiting to convey him to England.

The same year 1860 saw the completion of the Grand Trunk railway, the pioneer railway of Canada.

Sir Edmund Head retired in 1861 and on his return to England was made a Civil Service Commissioner in 1863, and Privy Councillor in 1867. He died in London in 1868.



Monck

(39th Governor-General of Canada).

1861—1868.

MONCK

(39th Governor-General of Canada).

1861—1868.

SIR Charles Stanley, fourth Viscount Monck, was appointed as Head's successor and thus became, in 1867, the first Governor-General of the newly formed Dominion of Canada. Born in Ireland, he was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and became a barrister. The eldest son of the third Viscount, he succeeded to the Irish title in 1849 and in 1852 was elected M.P. for Portsmouth, being a lord of the Treasury 1855-58. He was made a baron of the United Kingdom in 1866.

CANADA—A NATION.

The time had now come for the accomplishment of the great change foreshadowed by

Lord Durham. The idea of a federal union—one in which there would be a central government while each Province retained a local Parliament—was by no means a new one. In 1858 Sir Alexander Galt, Minister of Finance in several Canadian Cabinets, had proposed a federal union of the Provinces of British North America, a proposal which was given a place in its programme by the Conservative Government (of which Galt was a member) of that same year. In Parliament the parties were so evenly balanced that deadlock was becoming a common experience. Between 1861 and 1864 four or five Ministries held office. Under these circumstances the idea of a federal union of the two Canadas naturally suggested itself to the minds of statesmen. Out of the idea of the federal union of two Provinces gradually grew the greater one of a union of all the Provinces. But the Maritime Provinces, prosperous and contented with their newly acquired privilege of responsible government, were not yet ready to consider such a gigantic scheme. Not for several years was Confederation to be realized; yet in the interval the idea of union was never lost sight of by clear-sighted statesmen. In every Province there were men who fostered the cause of union—men of all parties and creeds. In Canada proper, Brown and Macdonald, in the Maritime Provinces, Tilley and Tupper, were to join hands from opposite parties with the object of carrying out this great measure.

Events soon forced the question of, at least "Maritime," union upon the attention of the Maritime Provinces. In 1861 civil war broke

out in the United States between the Northern and Southern States over the question of slavery. Great Britain and her colonies remained neutral. One incident, however, threatened to drag Great Britain into the war. A British mail steamship, the *Trent*, conveying two Southern commissioners, Messrs. Mason and Slidell, to Europe, was boarded by the captain of a United States ship-of-war and the Southerners forcibly taken. This incident seemed likely at first to lead to war between Great Britain and the United States, and there was intense excitement both in England and America. British soldiers were sent in haste to Canada (Upper and Lower) to reinforce the garrisons there; and as winter had by then set in and there existed yet no railway between the Maritime Provinces and Canada, most of the troops had to proceed through New Brunswick overland to Quebec, their progress being thereby rendered somewhat arduous and difficult. Meanwhile Great Britain had demanded the surrender of the captives, threatening war in case her request was not granted. Fortunately the United States Government gave up the commissioners and more serious trouble was averted. The mere possibility of war with the United States, however, impressed upon the Maritime Provinces the advantage of union. Yet the impulse to unite fell short of the larger scheme of a federation of all the Provinces, and tended towards the union of the Maritime Provinces only. The idea of a Maritime Provinces Union took practical form in 1864 when delegates from New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince

Edward Island, met at Charlottetown. The fact that the delegations included both Reformers and Conservatives proved that the movement was not one of party.

In the meantime the cause of union was gaining ground in Canada. It was becoming impossible for any government to maintain a majority. At last in 1864, when the Conservative ministry was defeated—a coalition government remaining the only salvation—, Mr. George Brown, setting aside party feeling, proposed that a joint ministry be formed with a view to pressing the plan of union. The proposal was acted upon, and the coalition ministry pledged itself to bring before Parliament a measure to secure the federal union of Upper and Lower Canada, and to provide for the admission of the other Provinces. When the Canadian statesmen therefore heard of the meeting which was being held at Charlottetown, P.E.I., they asked permission to take part in it. The request was granted and eight representatives, including John A. Macdonald, George Brown, and Georges Etienne Cartier, were sent to Charlottetown. There the grander scheme of Confederation overshadowed that of local union and it was decided to hold a second conference, this time at Quebec City, later in the season.

In October 1864 a formal convention, the Quebec Conference—the basis of Confederation—was held in the historic city of Quebec. Thirty-three delegates, representing Canada (Upper and Lower), New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, and Newfoundland, gathered in the old Parlia-

ment Buildings* of the ancient capital of New France. Of French, English, Scotch, and Irish, descent were these "Fathers of Confederation," as they are now designated and will be known to posterity, a fitting body to deal with the question of a union of all the British North American Provinces. Nor could a more suitable chairman have been chosen than Etienne Pascal Taché, a veteran of the war of 1812, who expressed the loyalty of his French-Canadian fellow-countrymen when he said that "the last gun that would be fired for British supremacy in America would be fired by a French-Canadian." The most prominent member of the gathering was undoubtedly John A. Macdonald, who had already played an important part in Canadian affairs and was to share in still greater events. His keen insight into character and his wide knowledge of the

*NOTE:—These Parliament Buildings, which had been erected in 1859—during the period that the Parliament of United Canada met alternately in Quebec City and Toronto (for a term of four years in each place) after Montreal had ceased to be the seat of government, and until 1866 when the Ottawa Buildings were completed and the first meeting of the Canadian (Union) Parliament took place there—were burned down in 1883. When Confederation was established in 1867 the buildings were handed over to the Province of Quebec. After, and even before, the conflagration it was decided to build a substantial structure designed to afford accommodation for both Houses of the Provincial Parliament and for the various Departmental offices which were at the time poorly situated here and there throughout the Upper Town. The new Quebec Parliament Buildings, at present such an ornament to the old capital, are an imposing French Renaissance edifice in grey stone, with a central tower 160 ft. high, which stands on prominent ground overlooking the city, the harbour, and the St. Charles valley. It was thus within the walls of the old Parliament buildings that the now famous Quebec Conference, preparatory to Confederation, held its sittings in 1864.

working of British institutions fitted him for leadership. From the moment the Confederation movement began, he never ceased to be its central figure. Another distinguished French-Canadian, Georges Etienne Cartier, had long been associated in public life with Macdonald. He had rendered faithful service to his Province under the Union. It was mainly Cartier's wise and tactful leading that brought Lower Canada into Confederation, and his watchful care that protected the interests of that Province. Upper Canada had no more faithful representative than George Brown. Mr. Brown was a Liberal of a pronounced type, but it will always be remembered to his honour that he forgot party in his desire to bring about union. The delegation from Canada included several other well known men: Alexander T. Galt, a master of finance, Thomas D'Arcy McGee, poet, historian, and orator, William McDougall, a distinguished son of a Loyalist, and Oliver Mowat, later Lieutenant-Governor of Ontario.

Among the Nova Scotian representatives were Charles Tupper and Adams G. Archibald. Tupper's force and readiness in debate had early brought him into prominence as leader of the Conservative party in his own Province, in which position he frequently pitted his strength against Howe whose lifelong opponent he was. New Brunswick's delegation was headed by Samuel Leonard Tilley, a man who stood high in the public life of his Province and whose ability later won him the position of Finance Minister of the Dominion. Prince Edward Island was represented by Colonel

Gray and George Coles, the latter the father of responsible government in his Province. Newfoundland sent Frederick Carter as delegate. No greater achievement has marked the progress of Canada than the uniting of the British North American Provinces; there are no names more worthy of a high place in the memory of Canadians than those of the "Fathers of Confederation."

The Quebec Conference lasted eighteen days and the result was the unanimous adoption of a set of seventy-two Resolutions embodying the terms and conditions under which the Provinces through their delegates agreed to a federal union. These resolutions had to be laid before the various Provincial Legislatures and adopted in the shape of addresses to the Queen, whose sanction was necessary to embody the wishes of the Provinces in an Imperial statute. The Conference had declared in favour of Confederation; it remained to be seen how the plan would be regarded by the British Government and by each of the Provinces. Its reception was varied. By the British Government it was gladly welcomed, as also by Upper and Lower Canada. Newfoundland rejected the proposal entirely and, adhering to this decision, still stands alone. New Brunswick at an early election declared against Confederation, but a year later reconsidered the matter and gave a decided majority in its favour. Nova Scotia, influenced by the action of New Brunswick, wavered at first, but finally the Legislature passed a resolution in favour of union. The fact that the

question was not put to the vote of the people led to trouble later. Prince Edward Island decided to remain independent.

In December 1866 a second Conference of delegates from the governments of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick was held at the former Westminster Palace Hotel in London (Victoria Street), and some modifications were made in the Quebec Resolutions, chiefly with a view of meeting objections from the Maritime Provinces. The aim of the delegation was especially to secure an Act of Union from the Imperial Government. In March, 1867, the British Parliament, without a division, passed the statute now known as the "British North America Act," joining the Provinces "to form and be one Dominion under the name of Canada." The names of Upper and Lower Canada from that time gave place to those of Ontario and Quebec. The Act united in the first instance the Province of Canada (United Upper and Lower Canada), now divided into Ontario and Quebec, with Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and made provisions for the coming in of the other Provinces of Prince Edward Island, Newfoundland, British Columbia, and the admission of Rupert's Land and the great Northwest.

Under the constitution established by the B.N.A. Act, the Sovereign was to be represented in the new Dominion by a Governor-General, and each Province was to have its local Legislature, while sending representatives to the Dominion Parliament. The Dominion Legislature included two bodies—the Senate

(Senators appointed for life) and the House of Commons. The latter was to be elected by the people for a term of five years. The Provinces were represented according to population. The representation of Quebec was to remain fixed at 65 members. The representation of each other Province was to bear the same relation to 65 as its population bore to that of Quebec. The British North America Act came into force on July 1st, 1867. This birthday of the Dominion was duly celebrated throughout the four Provinces, and the first of July—now called Dominion Day—has since that time been observed as the national birthday of Canada.

Lord Monck called upon Sir John A. Macdonald, who had been knighted for his valuable services in connection with the Confederation movement, to form a new government. Six Conservatives and Six Reformers were summoned to act with him by the Premier in the first Cabinet. Similarly the parties were equally represented in the Senate, there being thirty-six Conservatives and thirty-six Reformers. The present (1931) Senate has 96 members and the House of Commons 245 members. In the first session the new Dominion Parliament took up matters of great moment. The question of a railway, so vital to the permanence of Confederation, came up for discussion. The outcome was the construction of the Intercolonial Railway between the Maritime and Upper Provinces. Another question considered was the addition to Canada of the western territory controlled by

the Hudson's Bay Company. The harmony of the union was marred by one jarring note, the cry of Nova Scotia for the repeal of the British North America Act. The people of that Province were opposed to Confederation. Joseph Howe was at once placed at the head of the movement for repeal. At the first election for the Dominion House of Commons at Ottawa, Sir Charles Tupper alone, of all the candidates who favoured Confederation, was elected, while at the Provincial elections, which took place on the same day, only two Conservatives succeeded in securing seats. The new local Legislature immediately sent a delegation, headed by Howe, to ask the Imperial Government for permission to withdraw from the Dominion. On behalf of the Dominion Sir Charles Tupper was sent to London to oppose the wishes of the Nova Scotia Legislature. It was a battle royal between these two able and patriotic Nova Scotians, but, fortunately for the Dominion and for Nova Scotia, Howe was defeated. The home Government refused its consent to the withdrawal of the disaffected Province. Howe soon saw that further protest was useless and now bent all his energies to the securing of better terms for his Province. The Dominion Government was willing, new arrangements satisfactory to Nova Scotia were made, and Howe accepted a seat in the Dominion Cabinet. Four years later he was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of his native Province, but died only a few weeks after taking office.

Meanwhile events were happening which had an important bearing upon, and strength-

ened, the cause of Confederation. What argument failed to do in overcoming opposition to the movement, the action of a foreign power did most effectively. The United States Government suddenly in 1865 gave notice that the Reciprocity Treaty—in accordance with the provision bringing it to a conclusion after one year's notice from one of the parties interested—would be repealed in 1866, thinking thereby to force the British Provinces into annexation in order to save their trade. Congress even offered favourable terms of annexation, proposing to receive the Provinces as so many states of the American Union. This action had the sole effect of binding the Provinces more closely together, and of making them depend more upon one another and upon Great Britain for their trade. There was also a prejudice in the Northern States against the Canadian Provinces for their supposed sympathy for the Confederate States during the American Civil War. A raid made by a few rash Confederates, who had found refuge in Canada, on the bank at St. Albans, Vermont, not far from the Quebec border, deeply incensed the people of the North; though at no time could it be proved that the Canadian authorities had the least suspicion of the proposed expedition. On the contrary they brought the culprits to trial, placed companies of volunteers along the frontier, and even paid a large sum of money in acknowledgement of an alleged responsibility when some of the stolen money was returned to the robbers on their release by a Montreal magistrate. When we review the

history of those times and consider the difficult position in which Canada was necessarily placed, it is remarkable how honourably her government discharged its duties of a neutral between the belligerents. The Confederation movement was still further strengthened by the illegal action of the Fenian Brotherhood—the raids of the Fenians came contemporaneously with the repeal of the Reciprocity Act in 1866—an organization of discontented Irishmen, bands of men who did dishonour to the cause of Ireland under the pretence of striking a blow at England through Canada, where their countrymen have always found happy homes, free government, and honourable positions. It was little to the credit of the American Government that these men were allowed to arm and drill their forces within the borders of the United States. The most determined of the Fenian raids was that made in 1866 under one Colonel O'Neil upon the Niagara Peninsula. Crossing from Buffalo (N.Y) the invaders advanced to destroy the Welland Canal. At Ridgeway (in the Niagara district) they met and drove back a detachment of Canadian militia which had hurriedly been despatched to meet them. Nine of the Canadians were killed in the conflict and thirty-five wounded. Hearing of the approach of a large force of militia and regulars, with cavalry and artillery, the Fenians quickly retreated across the river to the United States.

A tragic event of the first session of the new Dominion Parliament was the murder of D'Arcy McGee. McGee was an Irishman who

in early life had attached himself to the Young Ireland party, and had fled to America on account of his connection with Smith O'Brien's insurrection. After spending some years in the United States he went to Montreal, founded a newspaper there, and entered the Legislature in 1857. His opinions gradually underwent radical change, and from an enemy of Great Britain he became an ardent imperialist. He was attached first to the Reform party, but afterwards formed a personal friendship and a political alliance with Sir John Macdonald. He was eloquent, witty, and of a most kindly disposition. In 1865 he visited Ireland and spoke strongly against Fenianism, and to these speeches his assassination is attributed. On the morning of April 7, 1868, all Canada was horrified by the news that he had fallen a victim to an assassin's bullet at Ottawa while entering his lodgings after the adjournment of the House. He was only in the 44th year of his age. His funeral at Montreal was attended by more than 20,000 people. Patrick James Whelan (though many hold that he was not McGee's murderer) was tried and found guilty of the murder and executed.

In the trading posts of the Pacific coast the foundation of a new Province had been laid. In 1849 the Hudson's Bay Company had been placed in control of Vancouver Island. The failure of the Company to encourage colonization and the influx of miners led to the island becoming, in 1859, a Crown Colony, with Victoria as its capital. Mr. James Douglas, later Sir James, who had been chief factor of the Hudson's Bay Company and Governor of

the island, continued in office under the Crown. The years 1856 and 1857 had witnessed a great change upon the mainland. The discovery of gold in the sands of the Fraser and Thompson rivers was the signal for an inrush of fortune hunters. To maintain order in a district made lawless by the presence of so many miners, a separate government was established with headquarters at the busy mining town of New Westminster. Thus was the Province of British Columbia formed. It was soon found, however, that it was both inconvenient and expensive to maintain the two colonies as separate governments. The total population was only about 15,000. It was determined, therefore, in 1866, to unite the two colonies under the name of British Columbia. Victoria (Vancouver Island), where handsome public buildings had already been erected, was chosen as the capital.

Lord Monck left office in November 1868, returning to England. He died in 1894, his elder son succeeding to the peerage.

NOTE.—*The names of the 33 delegates ("Fathers of Confederation") who attended the Quebec Conference (1864) are given below with the positions held by them in their respective Provinces :*

CANADA :	Sir Etienne Pascal Taché,
(Upper and Lower	Prime Minister; Hon. John
Canada)	A. Macdonald, Attorney-
(12 delegates)	General of Upper Canada;
	Hon. Georges Etienne Car-
	tier, Attorney-General of
	Lower Canada; Hon. George
	Brown, President of the
	Executive Council; Hon.
	Alexander T. Galt, Finance

MONCK

Minister; Hon. Alexander Campbell, Commissioner of Crown Lands; Hon. Jean C. Chapais, Commissioner of Public Works; Hon. Thomas D'Arcy McGee, Minister of Agriculture; Hon. Hector L. Langevin, Solicitor-General for Lower Canada; Hon. William McDougall, Provincial Secretary; Hon. James Cockburn, Solicitor-General for Upper Canada; Hon. Oliver Mowat, Postmaster-General.

NOVA SCOTIA :
(5 delegates)

Hon. Charles Tupper, Premier and Provincial Secretary; Hon. William A. Henry, Attorney-General; Hon. Robert B. Dickey; Hon. Adams G. Archibald; Hon. Jonathan McCully.

NEW BRUNSWICK :
(7 delegates)

Hon. Samuel Leonard Tilley, Premier and Provincial Secretary; Hon. Peter Mitchell; Hon. Charles Fisher; Hon. William H. Steeves; Hon. John Hamilton Gray; Hon. Edward B. Chandler; Hon. John M. Johnson, Attorney-General.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND :
(7 delegates)

Col. J. H. Gray, Premier; Hon. George Coles; Hon. Thomas Heath Haviland; Hon. Edward Palmer, Attorney-General; Hon. Andrew Archibald Macdonald; Hon. Edward Whelan; Hon. William H. Pope, Provincial Secretary.

MONCK

NEWFOUNDLAND :
(2 delegates)

Hon. Frederick B. T. Carter,
Speaker of the House of
Assembly; Hon. John Am-
brose Shea.



"THE FATHERS OF CONFEDERATION."

At the Quebec Conference which met in Quebec City, October, 1864—an historic scene in Canada's history. The resolutions which it accepted were later on incorporated in the British North America (Dominion) Act of 1867. The original picture, by the late Robert Harris, C.M.G., hung in the Railway Committee Room of the House of Commons, Ottawa, but was destroyed by fire in 1916. Mr Harris had left, however, a charcoal drawing made as a study for the painting and which, after the fire, was acquired by the Dominion Government. From this the above is reproduced. The portraits are considered to be equal, if not in some cases superior, to those of the painting. Centre back row Sir John A Macdonald (standing), on his right, Sir Geo. E. Cartier, Sir E. P. Laché. Left, Sir Adams G. Archibald. Centre front row, left to right, Sir S. L. Tilley, Sir Alex. Campbell, Sir Hector Langevin, Hon. Geo. Brown, Sir Oliver Mowat, (between them—other side of table—Sir Alex. Gait), Sir Chas. Tupper (standing). Extreme right (front row, sitting): Hon. J. D. Argy. McGee.



Lisgar

(40th Governor-General of Canada).

1868—1872.

LISGAR

(40th Governor-General of Canada).

1868—1872.

S*IR John Young, Baron Lisgar*, became the next Governor-General. Born in Bombay in 1807, he had occupied successively the positions of Secretary of the Treasury (1844-46), Chief Secretary for Ireland (1852-55), Lord High Commissioner of the Ionian Islands (under British Protectorate from 1815 to 1864 when they were ceded by Great Britain to the newly established Kingdom of Greece), and Governor of New South Wales (Australia).

Only four Provinces—Quebec, Ontario, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia—, as has been seen, took part in the celebration of July 1st, 1867. There was every prospect, however, that the bounds of the Dominion would soon be extended in the east and in the west. During the first session of the Dominion Parliament, the British Government was asked to hand

over to Canada Rupert's Land (or Hudson Bay Territory—the territory watered by the streams flowing into Hudson Bay, granted to the Hudson's Bay Company in 1670—called after Prince Rupert, a governor of the said Company), and the North-West. It was asserted that the rule of the Hudson's Bay Company, an organization interested in trade alone, did not tend to the general development of the country. A strong argument in support of Canada's request was the fact that the extension of the Dominion westwards would be a safeguard against any aggression of the United States in that direction. Under wise pressure from the Imperial Government, the Hudson's Bay Company, recognizing the necessity of allowing the army of civilization to advance into the region which it had so long kept as a fur preserve, finally surrendered to Canada its control of Rupert's Land and its monopoly of trade. The whole country, therefore, from line 49° (the American border from the head of the Great Lakes going West) to the Arctic region, and from Lake Superior to the Rocky Mountains, became a portion of the Canadian domain. The Company, in return, received the sum of £300,000, one-twentieth of all land lying south of the north branch of the Saskatchewan river and west of Lake Winnipeg, thereafter surveyed for settlement, and also retained its posts and trading privileges. Thus did this great company, after two centuries of uninterrupted authority, become a private commercial concern, although still the greatest in the West. Whatever may be said in criticism of the H.B.C., and of the

lesser organizations which it had absorbed, one fact should be remembered: namely, that it was by the energy and daring of its chief factors and explorers that the West was held for Great Britain and the Empire.

RED RIVER INSURRECTION, 1870.

The only occupants of those broad prairies at that time were roving bands of Indians, a few scattered traders, and 12,000 settlers in the valley of the Red River (Manitoba). 10,000 of these were half-breeds, some of Scottish descent, speaking English, others French, both in origin and speech. In 1869 the Canadian Ministry, of which Sir John Macdonald was Premier, took measures to assume possession of the country, where they proposed to establish a provisional government. Mr. William McDougall, a prominent Canadian Liberal, one of the founders of Confederation, always an earnest advocate of the acquisition of the North-West, was appointed to act as Lieutenant-Governor as soon as the formal transfer was made. This transfer, however, was not completed until a few months later than it was at first expected, and the Government of Canada appears to have acted with some precipitancy in sending surveyors into the country and in allowing Mr. McDougall to proceed at once to the scene of his proposed government. It would have been wise had the Canadian authorities taken measures to ascertain the wishes of the small but independent population with respect to the future government of their own country. As it was, into this com-

munity flocked, without warning, Canadian surveyors to lay out roads and townships. The country had been handed over to Canada, and the interests of the natives were to be sacrificed. Such was the thought of the half-breed element. The presence in the colony of several Fenians from the United States and annexationists added to the general discontent. The British, as well as French, settlers resented this hasty action of the Canadian authorities. The half-breeds, little acquainted with questions of government, saw in the appearance of surveying parties an insidious attempt to dispossess them eventually of their lands, to which many of them had not a sound title. The storm centre was the French half-breed party, the *Métis* (French for half-breed), led by Louis Riel. Riel was a French half-breed who had been educated in Montreal. Fluency of speech and magnetism of manner gave him ready control over his compatriots and there was no one in the colony able to restrain his ambition to resist the authority of the Dominion. His temperament was that of a race not inclined to steady occupation, loving the life of the river and plain, ready to put law at defiance when its rights and privileges were in danger. He and his half-breed associates soon found themselves at the head and front of the whole rebellious movement.

The news that the Hon. William McDougall was on his way to the Red River to assume the governorship was the signal for the rising. Riel and his followers seized Fort Garry (now Winnipeg) and set up a so-called "Provisional Government." McDougall was stopped at the

boundary line and forbidden to enter the country. But for the courage and tact and sage counsels of Sir Donald Smith (afterwards Lord Strathcona), then a prominent official of the Hudson's Bay Company, and acting as the agent of the Canadian Government, and the instrumentality of Archbishop Taché, of St. Boniface, whose services to the land and race he loved can never be forgotten by the people, affairs might have taken a worse turn than they did. An amnesty was promised, on his own responsibility, by the Archbishop to those who had taken part in the insurrection, and the troubles would likely have come to an end had not Riel court-martialled and caused to be mercilessly shot outside the fort one of the prisoners—Thomas Scott by name, from Ontario—whom he had thrust into Fort Garry as enemies of the "Provisional Government." The news of this tragedy aroused a widespread feeling of indignation, especially in the victim's native Province. The amnesty which was promised by Archbishop Taché, it is now quite clear, never contemplated the pardon of a crime like this, which was committed subsequently. The Canadian Government were then fully alive to the sense of their responsibilities, and at once decided to act with resolution. In the spring of 1870 an expedition, under the command of Col. Garnet Wolseley—afterwards Lord Wolseley—was organized of 500 regulars and 700 Canadian volunteers, who reached Winnipeg (Fort Garry) after a most wearisome journey of nearly three months, by the old fur-traders' route from Thunder Bay, Lake Superior, through

an entirely unsettled and rough country, where the portages were very numerous and laborious. Towards the end of August the toilsome and dangerous expedition successfully reached its destination, to find that, at the approach of the troops, Riel had promptly fled from the scene of his transient glory and sought a refuge in the United States.

Law and order henceforth prevailed in the new territory and out of the strife of rebellion arose now (1870) a new Province called Manitoba, with a complete system of local government, and including guarantees with respect to education, as in the old Provinces. Even while Wolseley's force was on its way to Fort Garry the Manitoba Act was passed by the Canadian Parliament. By this Act Manitoba was admitted into Confederation as a full-fledged Province, representation being given immediately in the two Houses of the Dominion Parliament. The claims of the half-breeds were fully met, 1,400,000 acres of land being set apart for that purpose. Many of Wolseley's men remained in the new Province to share in its making. The little settlement about Fort Garry was soon transformed into the populous city of Winnipeg, a monument to the foresight of that patriotic Scottish nobleman colonizer, Lord Selkirk. Manitoba drew her first Lieutenant-Governor from the extreme east of Canada in the person of a distinguished Nova-Scotian, Sir Adams Archibald.

A year later the westward expansion of Confederation was continued. With the admission of British Columbia in 1871 the Dominion had run its course from ocean to ocean.

Its entry was made subject to a very important condition: namely, that a transcontinental railway should be begun within two years and completed within ten years of the date of union. As it turned out, fifteen years were to elapse before the gigantic undertaking of the Canadian Pacific Railway was carried through, but with the driving of the last spike British Columbia was bound by the strongest bond to Canada.

In 1873 Prince Edward Island, repenting of its rejection of the scheme of Confederation, entered the Dominion. Throughout the whole course of the island's history the ownership of land had never ceased to be a vexed question. To settle the matter, the Dominion Government voted \$800,000 to buy out the rights of the absentee proprietors. The tenants were now in a position to purchase on reasonable terms the lands which they occupied.

The cause of Confederation had triumphed. In all the Provinces the obstacles had been great, but, in all, the faith of patriotic statesmen had been greater. The young Dominion stretched across a continent looking out to east and west upon an ocean. Newfoundland alone stood—and still stands—aloof.

In 1870 a Fenian raid was attempted into Quebec, but this was repulsed with ease; and in 1871 a similar raid into the new Province of Manitoba was prevented by the prompt action of the United States troops stationed on the frontier, and ended in the arrest of O'Neil (who had led the 1866 Fenian raid upon the Niagara peninsula) by the American Government.

The "Guibord case," as it was called, created some stir in Canada, and even abroad, in 1869, Bishop Bourget, the Roman Catholic Bishop of Montreal, condemned the *Year Book* for the preceding year (1868) of the Institut Canadien, a literary society of that city, his sentence being subsequently ratified by the Congregation of the Index in Rome. Then Bishop Bourget, in a letter written from Rome in 1869, warned his diocesans that any Catholic who should keep the condemned pamphlet and continue his connection with the Institute would be refused the sacraments of the Church even at the moment of death. The Institute submitted to the sentence, but some of its members remained obstinate, and from that case sprang another, still more famous. Joseph Guibord, a printer, died without having submitted and without reconciliation. He was accordingly denied Christian burial. The case was taken to court and carried from tribunal to tribunal, until the Privy Council decided that the corpse must be buried, without a funeral mass, in consecrated ground. Bishop Bourget obeyed, but immediately declared in a pastoral letter "that the place where the body of this rebellious child of the Church had been deposited was separate from the rest of the consecrated cemetery, so that it would be only a profane ground."

Lord Lisgar died in Ireland in 1876.



Dufferin

(41st Governor-General of Canada).

1872—1878.

DUFFERIN

41st Governor-General of Canada.)

1872—1878.

F*FREDERICK Temple Hamilton Blackwood, Marquis of Dufferin and Ava*, son of the fourth Baron Dufferin, assumed the governor-generalship of Canada as Lord Lisgar's successor. Lord Dufferin was born at Florence, Italy, in 1826, and succeeded to his father's title, an Irish one, in 1841. His mother, Helen Selina Sheridan (afterwards Lady Dufferin), was the grand-daughter of Richard Brinsley Sheridan (1751-1816), the British dramatist, author of "The School for Scandal." She was a noted Irish song writer, her best known such poem being "The Irish Emigrant." Her sister, Mrs. Norton, also a poet—and a novelist—wrote the words of the song "Bingen on the Rhine." Educated at Eton and Oxford, Lord

Dufferin first distinguished himself by contributions to literature, and published the popular *Letters from High Latitudes* in 1859. In 1860 he was sent by Lord Palmerston, then Prime Minister, as special commissioner to Syria to investigate the questions arising from the religious massacres, and on his return was created K.C.B. He was successively Under-Secretary for India (1864-66), Under-Secretary for War (1866), and Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster from 1868 to 1872. In 1871 he was created an earl.

No greater task had confronted any Parliament of the Dominion than the building of a transcontinental railway. In 1872, the year in which Lord Dufferin became Governor-General, Sir John A. Macdonald introduced the question in Parliament. Two companies straightway sought the charter, one the Inter-Oceanic, the other the Canadian Pacific. Unable to choose between the two companies, the Government chartered a third, known as the Canadian Pacific Railway Company. The great enterprise was well under way, when suddenly a member of the House arose and accused the Government of having sold the charter to the Canadian Pacific Railway Company for a sum of money to be used for election purposes. This has been called the Pacific Scandal. A committee was appointed to inquire into the charge, but the evidence was so conflicting that nothing came of the investigation. The matter hung fire for some time, every delay throwing suspicion upon the government and strengthening the Opposition.. A second committee of inquiry, appointed by the Gover-

nor-General, refused to pass judgment, and simply laid before Parliament the evidence that it had gathered. A heated debate followed. Finally the Premier (Sir John A. Macdonald) resigned, for he saw that when the question came to a vote the government would be defeated.

The Liberals therefore were placed in power, Alexander Mackenzie, leader of the Opposition, being called upon to form a new government. Meanwhile the Canadian Pacific Railway had thrown up its charter, much to the dissatisfaction of British Columbia. The new Premier at once announced that the plans of the recent government could not be fully carried out, and proposed to build the railway gradually as the finances of the country permitted. The Pacific Province insisted upon the fulfilment of the conditions under which it had entered the Confederation and even sent delegates to England to protest against further delay. Lord Carnarvon (4th earl, father of the late (5th earl) Lord Carnarvon, the discoverer in 1922 of the tomb of Tutankhamen), Colonial Secretary at the time, offered to act as arbitrator between the Dominion and British Columbia, and the offer was accepted. According to the "Carnarvon Terms," as they are called, the government agreed to construct immediately a wagon road and telephone line along the route of the proposed railway, and by the year 1890 to complete the railway itself from the Pacific coast to Lake Superior, where it would connect with the American roads and with the Canadian steamship lines. The delay caused by the Mackenzie government put a severe strain

upon British Columbia's loyalty to the Dominion.

During the five years that the Mackenzie administration remained in power, it proposed and carried many important measures. Among these were the establishment of a Supreme Court for Canada and the introduction of ballot in connection with elections for the House of Commons. But it was hampered in its efforts by the hostility of the Senate and by a strong and vigorous opposition in the Commons itself. Two years before the next election, Sir John Macdonald began to advocate what was called the "National Policy." There had been such a falling off in trade that the revenue returns were greatly reduced. The government had to face an ever increasing deficit. The "National Policy" proposed to raise the tariff so as not only to produce a revenue, but also to protect the young industries of the country. "Canada for the Canadians" was the watchword of the Conservative party. The tariff became the main question upon which the two political parties differed. In the elections of 1878 the cry of "Canada for the Canadians", following as it did a period of commercial depression, proved very attractive and carried the Conservatives back to power. Mr. Mackenzie resigned, and Sir John Macdonald once more assumed the reins of government. The new Prime Minister immediately took up again the question of a transcontinental road. Mr. Mackenzie's proposal to have the government build the railway was discarded. Reverting to his former

policy, the premier entrusted the work to a syndicate of capitalists bearing the name of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company. Two prominent members of the company were Mr. George Stephen, a Montreal merchant, and Mr. Donald A. Smith, an official of the Hudson's Bay Co., both afterwards favourably known under the titles of Lord Mount Stephen and Lord Strathcona. The railway was to be finished by the year 1890, but with such vigour was the work pressed forward that it was completed five years earlier. Construction was begun from both ends, the two sections meeting in the Rockies where the last spike was driven by Lord Strathcona in November 1885. The importance to the Dominion of the enterprise thus successfully carried out was very great. Without a transcontinental railway the union of the East and West could never have been permanent.

Since the insurrection of 1870, Riel had been an exile and was teaching school in Montana, United States. He had been induced to remain out of the Northwest by the receipt of a considerable sum of money from the secret service fund of the Dominion Government led by Sir John Macdonald. In 1874 he had been elected to the House of Commons by the new constituency of Provencher in Manitoba; but as he had been proclaimed an outlaw, when a true bill for murder was found against him in the Manitoba Court of Queen's Bench, and when he failed to appear for trial, he was expelled from the House on the motion of Mr. Mackenzie Bowell—subsequently Premier of

the Canadian Government. Lépine, a member also of the so-called provisional government of Red River, had been tried and convicted for his share in the murder of Scott, but Lord Dufferin exercised the prerogative of royal clemency and commuted the punishment to two years' imprisonment.

In 1876 the Intercolonial Railway was completed, and the year 1878 closed the administration of Lord Dufferin, one of Canada's ablest Governors.

From 1879 to 1881 Lord Dufferin was British Ambassador at St. Petersburg, whence he was transferred to Constantinople (1881-84). After the collapse of Arabi Pasha's rebellion Lord Dufferin went to Cairo to restore order in Egypt. To him was due the abolition of the Dual, or Joint (English and French), Control there. In 1884 he succeeded the Marquis of Ripon as Viceroy of India. His tenure of office was made memorable by measures for strengthening the Indian frontier; by the various attempts to delimit the Afghan frontier, which, though interrupted by the Russian attack on Penjdeh (north of Herat), were brought to a successful issue by the Anglo-Russian Commission; and, above all, by the annexation of Upper Burma in 1885. That province had been reduced to submission, and the Tibetans had been defeated by the Sikkim (Indian native state, immediately south of Tibet) expeditions, when Lord Dufferin resigned in 1888. He became British ambassador at Rome (1888), was created Marquis of Dufferin and Ava the same year, and was ambassador to France from 1891 to 1896.

After an exceptionally brilliant career (he was a man of rare attainments and has been described as "poet, writer, mariner, linguist, and statesman in one"), Lord Dufferin's later years were clouded by his unfortunate action in 1897 in accepting the chairmanship of the London and Globe Finance Corporation, of which Whitaker Wright (see note * below) was managing director, without adequate inquiry into its affairs, over which he had no control, but for the disastrous collapse of which he had to share the blame. This and the death of his eldest son, Lord Ava, who died of wounds at Ladysmith in the South African war in 1900, led to a breakdown in health, and he died at Clandeboye (near Belfast), Feb. 12, 1902. He was succeeded by his second son, Lord Terence Temple-Blackwood (1866-1918), on whose death the title passed to his fourth son (the third son having been killed in action in France in 1917 while serving with the Grenadier Guards), Lord Frederick Blackwood—third Marquis of Dufferin and Ava—born in Ottawa, Canada, 1875, who was first Speaker of the Senate of Northern Ireland (since its inception in 1921) when he was killed in an aeroplane accident on July 21,

*NOTE: WHITAKER WRIGHT. *British financier. Was sentenced in London in 1904 to seven years' penal servitude for frauds on the shareholders and creditors of the London and Globe Finance Corporation by the issue of fraudulent balance sheets. The Company collapsed in 1901, and, two other Whitaker Wright ventures failing and causing widespread disaster, there was a demand for his prosecution which was for a long time abortive. The total deficit was £5,500,000. Wright fled to the United States and was not extradited until 1903. After sentence (Jan. 26, 1904) he committed suicide.*

DUFFERIN

1930, an air taxi from Le Touquet of which he was one of the passengers having crashed near Meopham, Kent. His only son, Lord Basil Blackwood, the present (4th) Marquis, who succeeded to the title on his father's untimely death, was born in 1909.

During his term of office as Governor-General, Lord Dufferin visited every part of the Dominion, including British Columbia, and did much to strengthen the feeling of unity and to bind Canada more closely to Great Britain. His name shall long be revered by Canadians as that of one of the great builders of their country.



Lorne

(42nd Governor-General of Canada)

1878—1883.

LORNE

(42nd Governor-General of Canada) .

1878—1883.

JOHN Douglas Sutherland Campbell, *Marquis of Lorne*, afterwards (1900) *9th Duke of Argyll*, who had married Queen Victoria's daughter, Princess Louise, succeeded Lord Dufferin as Governor-General, and he and his royal wife received a warm and hearty welcome from all classes of the Canadian people. The eldest son of the 8th Duke, he was born in 1845, and was educated at Eton, St. Andrews University (Scotland), and Cambridge. In 1868-78, and again in 1895-1900, he was a member of the British Parliament, first as a Liberal for Argyllshire (Scotland) and later as a Liberal-Unionist for South Manchester.

Out of the Red River Insurrection (1870) emerged, as we have seen, the Province of Manitoba. No sooner was order restored than settlers began to flock into the country. Immigration was encouraged by free grants of land. Many farmers from Eastern Canada moved West, while from Europe came an ever increasing number of colonists of British, Scandinavian, and German, stock. The newcomers spread beyond the limits of Manitoba, many

finding their way into the valley of the Saskatchewan, a few even to the foothills of the Rockies. This North-West Territory was governed by the Lieutenant-Governor of Manitoba and a Council of eleven members. Subsequently a change took place and an Act had been passed, giving a government, separate from that of Manitoba, to the North West Territories. The eastern section of the country, called Keewatin, was placed under the personal control of the Lieutenant-Governor of Manitoba, while the western was given its own resident Lieutenant-Governor and a Council of five members. About this time, too, a number of treaties were made with the Indians of a part of those regions, by which they gave up their claims to the soil for supplies of food and certain annual sums of money. A vast quantity of fertile land was thus opened for settlement; but large "Reserves," as they are called, were set apart for the Indians. A few years later four provisional Districts were organized—Alberta, Assiniboia, Athabaska, and Saskatchewan. Regina, situated upon the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway, then under construction, was chosen as the seat of government. In 1896 four new provisional Districts were added to these, being marked out in the great northern unsettled territory under the names of Yukon, Mackenzie, Franklin (north of Mackenzie and the Arctic Circle, covering the Arctic Archipelago and Baffin Land to the East), and Ungava (the latter district situated North of Quebec and since added to that Province by Order-in-Council of the Canadian Government in 1912).

In 1878 an important Temperance law was passed. It was generally known as the "Scott Act," and it provided that any municipality might forbid the sale of intoxicating liquors within its bounds.

During the summer of 1879 Sir John Macdonald, then Prime Minister of Canada, visited England and was sworn in as a member of the Imperial Privy Council. In that same year certain members of the Canadian Ministry then in England represented in a confidential memorandum addressed to the Secretary of State for the Colonies the need which existed of providing the means of constant and confidential communication "between Her Majesty's Government and Her local advisers in Canada, in extension of the more formal relations subsisting through the correspondence of the Secretary of State for the Colonies with the Governor-General." Her Majesty's Government having returned a sympathetic answer, the Canadian Parliament passed the following year (1880) a Bill constituting the office of High Commissioner, or Agent, for Canada in the United Kingdom, who was to live in England. His duties were thus defined:

1. To act as representative and resident Agent of the Dominion in the United Kingdom, and in that capacity to execute such powers and to perform such duties as may from time to time be conferred upon, and assigned to, him by the Governor in Council.
2. To take charge, supervision, and control, of the Immigration offices and agencies

in the United Kingdom, under the Minister of Agriculture.

3. To carry out such instructions as he may from time to time receive from the Governor in Council respecting the commercial, financial, and general, interests of the Dominion in the United Kingdom and elsewhere.

Sir Alexander Galt, one of the "Fathers of Confederation," was the first to fill this office. He held the position till 1883, when Sir Chas. Tupper, at that time a member of Sir John Macdonald's Cabinet, was appointed to perform the duties of the office without salary, thus enabling him to retain his portfolio of Railways and Canals and his seat in the Canadian House of Commons. In 1884, however, Sir Charles having withdrawn from the Government, was thereupon appointed High Commissioner in the usual manner. In January 1887 he resigned this office to re-enter the Cabinet, this time as Minister of Finance, remaining in the Ministry till May 1888, when he returned to the High Commissionership which he held until 1896, when he was called to be Prime Minister of Canada. Sir Charles Tupper's successor in the office of High Commissioner in London was Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal (See note *, end of chapter).

Meanwhile the Paris Agency was being established. In 1882 the Hon. Hector Fabre, at that time a member of the Canadian Senate, having been selected by the Quebec Government to reside in France in order to promote the financial, commercial, and other, interests of that Province there, the Government of

Canada commissioned him to act in a similar capacity as Agent for the Dominion. Instructions furnished the Agent on October 3, 1882, thus defined his duties:

"To spread information in France and on the Continent of Europe regarding Canada, its resources, and its advantages as a field for emigration. That he will also solicit the attention of the capitalists of France to the minerals, timber and fish products, of Canada, and the promise which they offer in return for their development."

The Agent is directed to conform to any instructions which he may receive from the High Commissioner for Canada in London regarding steps to be taken to improve the commercial relations between France and Canada, and to report monthly to the Canadian Secretary of State the efforts which he may have made to carry out the duties entrusted to him. Mr. Fabre continued to act as Agent (*Commissaire*) of the Canadian Government in Paris until his death in 1910. His successor was also drawn from the Senate in the person of Hon. Philippe Roy, who, on May 1, 1911, was appointed "*Commissaire-Général du Canada en France*" without, however, any change in the status enjoyed, or functions discharged, by his predecessor. (See note **, end of chapter).

In 1879 Mackenzie resigned the leadership of the Liberal party to Edward Blake, a lawyer of great ability and high reputation. He had been for a short time Premier of Ontario, and (afterwards) a member of Mackenzie's Ministry. In 1887 he retired from Canadian

political life to enter the Imperial Parliament. Late in 1880 a former leader of the Liberal party in Canada, George Brown (another "Father of Confederation"), founder of the *Toronto Globe*, died from the effects of a wound received at the hands of an employee—a printer—who had been dismissed for some misconduct. Canadians have erected to his memory a monument in the beautiful Queen's Park of the city where he laboured so long and earnestly as a statesman and a journalist.

To students of politics the Letellier case, which came up during the Marquis of Lorne's tenure of office as Governor-General, is of considerable interest. Letellier de St. Just, a strong Liberal and a colleague of Alexander Mackenzie, was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of Quebec. The Provincial Ministry under De Boucherville was Conservative, and there was ill-feeling and friction between the Governor and his advisers. Letellier was a proud and sensitive man, and he was influenced by a belief that his ministers were deliberately flouting his authority and endeavouring to humiliate him. On paper there was a good deal of wrangling over constitutional questions, but beneath the controversy there lay much personal and partisan bitterness. Letellier dismissed his prime minister (De Boucherville) in March 1878 on the grounds that important legislation involving the levying of taxes had been submitted to the Legislature without consultation with him, and that he had thus been placed in a false position, in conflict with the Legislature's will. He also criticized the policy and administration of the government as extra-

vagant. Sir Henri Joly de Lotbinière undertook the task of forming a new government. The Legislative Assembly at once voted that the dismissal of De Boucherville was an imminent danger to responsible government in Quebec, was an abuse of power in contempt of the majority of the House, whose confidence the government had possessed, and was a violation of the liberties of the people. Other votes of want of confidence in the new government were passed. The Legislature was then prorogued and both parties to the dispute transmitted their explanations to the Governor-General. In the subsequent elections which took place in Quebec, the friends of the new government succeeded in electing their candidate for Speaker and the Joly government remained in power till October 30, 1879. But the defeat of the Mackenzie government in September 1878 gave encouragement to the foes of the Lieutenant-Governor of Quebec and petitions were sent to Ottawa for his dismissal. Sir John Macdonald, now Premier of Canada, recommended to the Governor-General that Letellier should be removed. But the Marquis of Lorne showed a decided aversion to follow his minister's advice in this respect. He referred the question to the Imperial authorities for instructions. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, Colonial Secretary, after reciting in his answer every fact of the case, stated that the law did not empower Her Majesty's Government to decide it, and therefore Her Majesty's Government did not propose to express any opinion with regard to the matter. He then proceeded to define the position of a

Lieutenant-Governor, confirming the indisputable right of the latter to dismiss his ministers, and that for any action which he (the Lieutenant-Governor) might take he was directly responsible to the Governor-General of Canada. But at the same time the reply contained the assertion that the Governor-General "should follow the decided and sustained opinion of his responsible Ministers," that is, act upon their advice. The dispatch invited reconsideration by the Canadian Ministers, and, though the Governor-General in transmitting it asked the Cabinet to give due consideration to certain facts which he mentioned—as the support of the Quebec electorate to Joly, etc.—, the upshot was that the Lieutenant-Governor was dismissed, an Order-in-Council which Lorne therefore signed.

The summer of 1881 was hot and dry, and terrible forest fires broke out in the dense woods of Muskoka district (Ontario) and the wild country north of Kingston. The people of the more fortunate regions gave generous help to the sufferers. At the same time there were even more dreadful fires in the State of Michigan, United States, which caused great loss both of life and property. A time of prosperity followed the long years of bad trade. The harvest was plentiful, and the work on the Canadian Pacific Railway, which was at last being pushed on quickly enough to please even British Columbia, caused the spending of large sums in Canada, and made business brisk. The Conservatives declared that the improvement in trade was due, partly at least, to the "National Policy," and for several years the

revenue of the country was more than enough to meet the expenses of government. This surplus, as it is called, was often spent in helping to build new railways.

During the same year 1881 and the previous one there was a great rush of people from the older Provinces to Manitoba and the North-West. Numerous towns were laid out on paper, and some people rashly paid high prices for lots in them. Wages were high and for a while business was exceedingly good. Then a period of disappointment followed, and some men who had hoped to make fortunes returned to the Eastern Provinces poorer than when they left them. But many stayed on, and these soon won a good living from the rich wheat-fields of the new Province.

In 1881 the Dominion Parliament had added to Manitoba a large district to the east. But the land was claimed by Ontario and a hot dispute arose between the two Provinces. Both appointed magistrates and constables for the same district, and these, it is said, chiefly employed themselves in arresting each other. At last, however, the two Provinces agreed to ask the Privy Council to decide between them, and the disputed district was given to Ontario.

An unusually large number of settlers came to Canada in 1883, but the season of prosperity was nearing its end. The harvests of 1883 and 1884 were poor, and the country was beginning to suffer from the rash speculation of the last few years. Several banks and many business houses failed.

The Marquis of Lorne and Princess Louise, during their residence in Canada, did much to

stimulate a wider taste for Art by the establishment in 1880 of the Royal Canadian Academy of Art—which the Marquis of Lorne, then Governor-General, founded—and the holding of annual exhibitions. Princess Louise, herself an artist (in painting and sculpture—a good specimen of her work, a statue of Queen Victoria, may be seen in Kensington Gardens, London, in a recess of the Broad Walk near Kensington Palace), took a great interest in this effort to encourage Canadian Art. In the following year, 1881, the Royal Society of Canada, which has played an important part in the recent progress of Canadian literature and science, was also founded by the Marquis of Lorne. Both societies are still flourishing.

The Marquis of Lorne was author of tales and poems, books on Canada and Imperial Federation, lives of Palmerston and Queen Victoria, etc. He died May 2nd, 1914.

* NOTE :—Lord Strathcona continued as High Commissioner from 1896 until his death, on January 21, 1914, at the age of 93, working regularly at his office until a few days of the end. In June of the same year, Sir George Perley was sent to London to succeed him, temporarily, at that post. As the Great War broke out soon after his arrival he remained here throughout, becoming Canadian Minister of Overseas Militia in 1916. In 1915 he was knighted and in 1917 became officially High Commissioner for Canada. In 1922 he retired from office and was succeeded by Hon. Peter Larkin, who died in London in February 1930 and was replaced by the present High Commissioner, Hon. G. Howard Ferguson, who relinquished the Premiership of Ontario for his new office, the duties of which he assumed in February 1931.

**NOTE :—The scope of the work hitherto carried on by the Commissioner-General for Canada in Paris has now been extended by the establishment there of a Canadian Legation which includes the appointment of Canadian Minister in France. This action, declared Mr. Mackenzie King, then Prime Minister, had been taken "with the full knowledge and hearty co-operation of the British Government."



Lansdowne

(43rd Governor-General of Canada).

1883—1888.

LANSDOWNE

(43rd Governor-General of Canada).

1883—1888.

IN October 1883 *Henry Charles Keith Petty-Fitzmaurice, 5th Marquis of Lansdowne* (born 1845), replaced the Marquis of Lorne as Governor-General. He received his education at Eton and Oxford and succeeded to the peerage and estates as he came of age. Consequently he was never, as a statesman, in the British House of Commons, but in the Lords he soon became prominent. In 1869 he joined the Liberal ministry as a lord of the Treasury, and in 1872-74 was Under-Secretary at the War Office. In 1880 he again took office under Gladstone as Under-Secretary for India, but resigned almost at once as he disagreed with his chief over the Compensation for Disturbance (Ireland) Bill.

NORTH-WEST REBELLION, 1885.

In the spring of 1885 Canada was startled by the news that a formidable half-breed and Indian rising had occurred in the North-West Territory, and that a force of Mounted Police and volunteers had been defeated by the rebels. The trouble had been brewing for several years. The scene of the rebellion (also called the Saskatchewan Rebellion) was near the junction of the North and South Saskatchewan rivers. After the Red River Insurrection of 1870 two hundred and forty acres of land were granted to each half-breed (*métis*). As the Province began to fill with settlers, many, in spite of this liberal grant, withdrew westwards and settled on the banks of the Saskatchewan. With the formation of the North-West Territories the hated civilization began to creep in upon them once more, and the arrival of surveyors in the country caused the same alarm as in Manitoba 14 years earlier. The rapid disappearance of the buffalo, upon which Indians and half-breeds alike depended for a living, threatened a general famine. The *Métis* received neither presents nor reserves to reconcile them to the settling of white men on their hunting-grounds, and their natural unrest was increased by a fear that their lands, for which no actual patents or title-deeds had been granted them, would be snatched away by speculators. Great dissatisfaction was felt, too, with the government's method of surveying the land, which interfered with the old French plan of having all the farms fronting on the river. In 1882 there was a land boom in the

West and a large amount of speculative dealing in land, and the *Métis* became fearful also that their holdings would be disturbed. If anything further were needed to provoke rebellion, it was the presence of Louis Riel, who, returning from exile in the United States, suddenly appeared upon the scene to champion once more the cause of his restless compatriots.

At first Riel merely held meetings and at one of these held by the *Métis* at St. Laurent (Saskatchewan), in September 1884, a Bill of Rights, or Petition, was drawn up to the government containing several requests, among others that North-West half-breeds should receive the same grants as Manitoba half-breeds, patents to be issued at once to those in possession of lands; that the Indians should be better provided for; and that grants should be made for the support of schools and hospitals. Though there was reason to expect that the government, though slow to act, would eventually try to remove all causes of discontent, the situation grew worse during the winter of 1884-85, and in March it became so threatening that officers of the Mounted Police gave warning that a rebellion might break out at any time and that the Indians would join the half-breeds. When, at a later period, the Ottawa government was charged with neglect, the answer was that the real grievances were not great, that many of the half-breeds had already received land in Manitoba, and that the rebellion was fomented by disappointed white speculators. After the charge and the defence are examined, however, the impression seems to remain that there was a lack of breadth and

foresight in dealing with the situation. No one appears to have realized that there was danger of an insurrection similar to that of 1870, with the added horror of an Indian rising, and that in comparison with this danger the allowance even of some extravagant claims to land would have been of trifling importance.

On March 17, 1885, the half-breeds met at St. Laurent (Batoche), the centre of the *Métis* settlements, and formed a government with Riel as president and Gabriel Dumont—a *Métis* trader near Batoche—as adjutant-general. The provisional government seized stores, imprisoned the Indian agent and telegraph operators, and cut the telegraph wires. The *Métis* were joined by a considerable body of Indians. Riel did his utmost to persuade the Indian tribes also to rebel. Their warriors might still be counted by thousands. Happily most of them refused to rise at Riel's bidding, or it would have gone hard with the scattered settlers whose only protection was about 500 men of the Mounted Police force, which had been formed in 1873 to keep order in the North-West. The real danger lay therefore not in a revolt of the *Métis*, but in the possibility of a general rising of the Indians, of whom there were over 30,000 in the North-West. Prince Albert, Battleford, and Fort Pitt, were exposed to the attack of either the half-breeds or the Indians. Fortunately only the Crees, among the Indian tribes, joined the rebels. The most serious risings of the Indians took place near Battleford and Fort Pitt, among the followers of Poundmaker, Big Bear, and other chiefs of the Cree communities living on the Indian

reserves in the Saskatchewan district. As to the total number of half-breeds in that region at the time it was probably 4,000.

The first encounter took place at a little settlement call Duck Lake—within the angle formed by the North and South Saskatchewan rivers—when a force of Mounted Police and Prince Albert volunteers, while attempting to recover the post captured by the rebels, were met by a band of the latter (led by Gabriel Dumont—a half-breed of great strength and courage to whom Riel had given command of his followers) and driven back with a loss of 12 men killed. The rest were forced to retreat to Fort Carlton, to the West. There they were joined by Col. Irvine with 80 Mounted Police and 30 volunteers from Prince Albert, to which town they soon fell back. This success of the rebels had a bad effect on the Indians, the defeat of the Mounted Police especially depriving that body of the prestige which it formerly held among the former. The disaster was communicated to Ottawa and occasioned wild excitement throughout Canada. There was a general call to arms, and a force was speedily organized by General Middleton, commanding the militia. Meanwhile, more to the North, a band of Cree warriors under Chief Big Bear descended upon the little settlement of Frog Lake, near Fort Pitt, disarmed and shot nine men, including two Oblat missionaries, and carried off a number of women and children. About the same time several settlers were murdered at other places. The Indians next moved upon Fort Pitt, a group of log houses in

the form of a square, but practically defenceless. The place was guarded by a few determined Mounted Policemen whose commander Francis Dickens, a son of the famous novelist, seeing that it could not hold out against the enemy, withdrew his men down the river to Battleford. Several hundred men, women, and children, leaving their homes to be robbed or burned by the Indians, had fled for refuge to the fort at Battleford. But even there they were in great danger, and, as the rebels had destroyed the telegraph wires, the settlers seemed terribly cut off from the outside world.

But help was on the way. The Dominion government took prompt action and the call for volunteers met with an eager response on all sides. Quebec, Kingston, Toronto, Winnipeg and many other places sent their citizen-soldiers. The Maritime Provinces also offered men, and the loyal enthusiasm of all proved once more that the sons of Canada are ever ready to defend her in time of need. Distance, however, made the transportation of troops very difficult. From Ottawa to Qu'Appelle (near Regina, Sask.) was over 1,600 miles, and from Qu'Appelle to Batoche 240. To add to the difficulty of the undertaking there were gaps in the Canadian Pacific Railway along the north shore of Lake Superior which necessitated, for one, the use of sleighs in transporting guns and military stores for 80 miles, and a stretch of about 100 miles over which troops had to be carried on flat cars. The weather in March and April was, besides, very cold, and the men suffered severe hardships. In spite of this, within a month a force

of 3,000 men was transported from Eastern Canada and about 1,500 came from Manitoba and the North-West. These, with the Mounted Police, formed Middleton's forces. From Winnipeg westward the Canadian Pacific Railway was used as the base of operations. Middleton moved north from Qu'Appelle to Batoche, Riel's headquarters; Col. Otter's force from Swift Current to Battleford, and General Strange's men from Calgary to Edmonton. After long and toilsome marches all encountered the enemy, and the campaign, though brief, was not one of unchecked success for the government forces. Otter's troops halted within three miles of Battleford ten days after leaving Swift Current. At this point Col. Otter, in order to prevent Poundmaker, the Cree chief, who was encamped at a place called Cut Knife Creek, nearby, from joining Big Bear to the North, decided to move in the direction of the former's reserve. This led to an engagement with the Indians at Cut Knife Creek where Otter was repulsed and forced to fall back in the direction of Battleford with a loss of 8 killed and 14 wounded. Meanwhile General Strange had relieved Edmonton from the danger of an Indian attack and was descending the North Saskatchewan river in order to hem in Big Bear between his force and that of Col. Otter, stationed at Battleford, and General Middleton's. Alarmed at the strength of the forces closing in upon him, Big Bear began to retreat. Major Steele was sent in pursuit. Hundreds of miles were covered before the fleeing band was broken up and its chief captured. Middleton's force, after a toilsome march of

many days from Qu'Appelle, had come suddenly, on nearing Batoche, upon a body of half-breeds, under the command of Gabriel Dumont, posted in a ravine called Fish Creek. In the skirmish which followed, General Middleton lost 10 men and both sides fought obstinately but without decisive results. Although Dumont fell back during the night, Middleton, a cautious officer, decided to await the arrival of the steamer *Northcote*, due to come down the river with reinforcements and supplies, before moving on to Batoche. After some days the delayed steamer arrived and the advance was continued, two days' march bringing the force within striking distance of the rebels' headquarters. The ground before the village was found to be honeycombed with rifle-pits. On May 9th the attack was begun. The rebels were so strongly posted that it took three days to dislodge them, and in the long fight 9 of the volunteers were killed and 30 wounded. But Batoche was taken at last and this victory broke the neck of the rebellion. The next day the rebels crowded into Middleton's camp to surrender and three days after the fall of the town Riel was captured. General Middleton then without loss of time pressed on to Prince Albert, and thence to Battleford. At the latter place Poundmaker and his followers came in and laid down their arms unconditionally.

With Riel, Poundmaker, and Big Bear, in custody, the rebellion was at an end. Dumont had escaped to the United States; Riel was tried at Regina, and though ably defended,

was found guilty of treason and sentenced to be hanged, his execution taking place at Regina (Sask.) on November 16, 1885. Eight Indians who took part in the Frog Lake massacre and other murders also paid the death penalty, while other Indians and half-breeds were imprisoned, among them Poundmaker who died in prison.

Although a trying experience while it lasted, the North-West Rebellion was not without its good results. Its greatest influence was not upon the North-West alone, but upon the whole Dominion; for it made real in the hearts of Canadians the union which Confederation had brought about. In recognition of their growing importance, the North-West Territories were soon afterwards granted representation in the Senate and the House of Commons. To preserve order and to protect the lives of the settlers scattered throughout this vast country, the Mounted Police force was considerably increased.

In 1886 Archbishop Taschereau of Quebec was made a Cardinal. All Canada was proud of the honour conferred upon one of her most distinguished sons.

In 1888 the Marquis of Lansdowne was transferred from Canada to India where he was Viceroy until 1893. In 1895 he became Secretary for War. He was still in that office when the South African War broke out and was blamed for the unpreparedness of the British army at the outset of that struggle. From 1900 to 1905 he was Foreign Secretary and as such concluded the second alliance with Japan. He thereafter was the leader of the

LANSDOWNE

Unionist Opposition in the House of Lords from 1906 to the outbreak of the Great War. In 1915, when a Coalition Government was formed, he joined it as Minister without portfolio, but resigned in 1916. In 1917 Lansdowne advocated overtures for peace with Germany and was leader of a small but somewhat influential party that believed that course desirable.

Lord Lansdowne died on June 3rd, 1927, at his son-in-law and daughter's (Lady Osborne Beauchamp, widow of the 6th Marquis of Waterford) residence at Newtown Anner, near Clonmel, Co. Tipperary, Ireland, in his 83rd year.



Stanley

(44th Governor-General of Canada).

1888—1893.

STANLEY

(44th Governor-General of Canada).

1888—1893.

F*REDERICK Arthur Stanley*, created *Baron Stanley of Preston* in 1886, and brother to Lord Derby (15th Earl, a British politician who had a breach with the Conservative party in 1878, subsequently joining the Liberals, and was Colonial Secretary under Gladstone from 1882 to 1885), became Lansdowne's successor to the governor-generalship of Canada in 1888. Younger son of the 14th Earl of Derby (who was three times Prime Minister of Great Britain), he was born in London in 1841, and educated at Eton. After serving in the Grenadier Guards 1858-65, he was Conservative M. P. for Preston 1865-68, N. Lancs. 1868-85, and Blackpool 1885-86. Before being appointed Governor-General of

Canada, he held office as Civil Lord of the Admiralty, Secretary for War, Colonial Secretary, and President of the Board of Trade.

In 1888 the Mercier Government of Quebec passed a bill (Jesuit Estates Bill) granting \$400,000 to make up to the Roman Catholic Church for the loss of land which had been taken from the Jesuits of Canada in 1760. As there were claims by different bodies within the Church, it was provided that the Pope should be asked to ratify the settlement and decide how the money should be allotted. The division was made among the Jesuits, the Archbishops and Bishops of the Province, and the (Roman Catholic) Laval University. At the same time the grant to Protestant schools in Quebec was increased by \$60,000. This bill was hotly discussed in the other Provinces, especially in Ontario, due to dislike and distrust of the Jesuits and also to jealousy of the papal intervention, and a motion was brought forward during the session of 1889 in the Dominion Parliament asking Lord Stanley to disallow the bill. But the large majority thought it a case which concerned Quebec alone, only 13 members casting their votes in favour of the motion, and Lord Stanley refused to interfere.

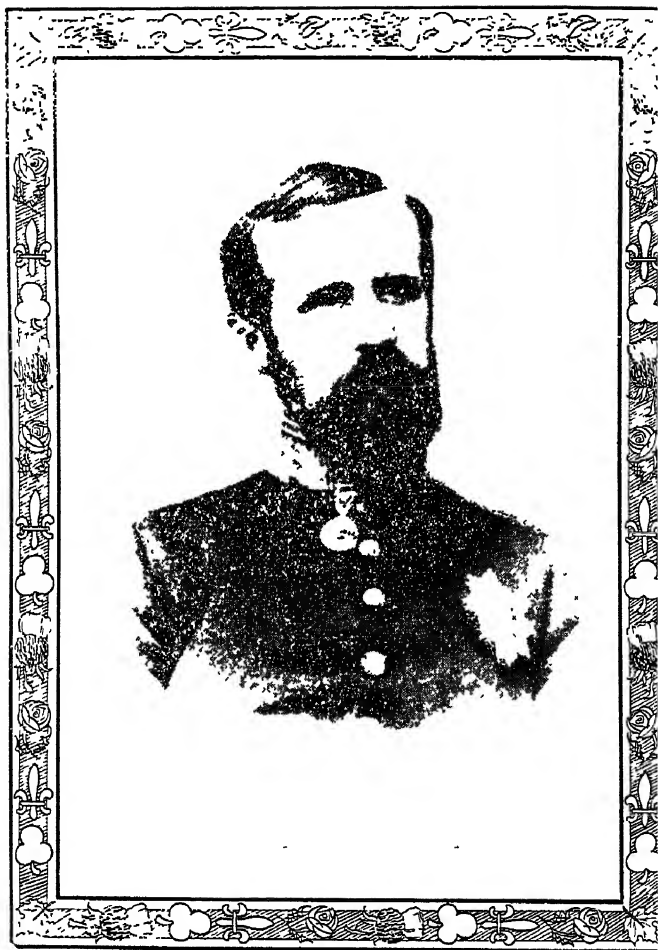
Early in 1891 there was another general election. Sir John Macdonald, though now an old man, addressed one political meeting after another, and once more the people sent up to Parliament a majority of Conservatives. A few months later Sir John fell ill, and, after lingering between life and death for eight days, breathed his last on June 6th, 1891. He has well been called the "Father of Confederation," and,

though there must be differences of opinion concerning many of his actions, even his rivals admit that through his long political life he showed an untiring "devotion to Canada's welfare, Canada's advancement, and Canada's glory." His name will ever be closely associated with two great events: the formation of the Dominion and the building of the first Canadian transcontinental railway. His death was followed a year later by that of his political opponent, Alexander Mackenzie, a man whose honesty has become proverbial in Canadian history. Macdonald had been at the head of the Dominion Government for nineteen of the twenty-four years since Confederation, but during the five years following his death there were four Premiers. The first of these was Sir John Abbott (Cons.). He soon resigned on account of ill-health, and died in 1893. He was succeeded in 1892 by a very able man, Sir John Thompson, who had been a judge of the Supreme Court of his native Province, Nova Scotia, and Minister of Justice under Macdonald. Whilst holding this office he had toiled hard to simplify and improve the criminal laws, and had endeavoured to visit all the prisons under his charge—even those in remote parts of the North-West Territories.

The year 1893 saw the settlement of the Behring Sea Dispute between Canada and the United States. The Canadians claimed the right to catch seals in the Behring Sea; but the Americans said that the sea belonged to Alaska, and therefore that only Americans had the right to take the seals found there. They even seized several British sealing ships, and there

was great danger that the quarrel might lead to war; but, instead of fighting, the two nations agreed to submit the dispute to arbitration, and in 1893 (the arbitration tribunal sitting—February to August of that year—in Paris) it was decided that the Behring Sea did not belong to the Americans, and that they ought to pay for the ships they had seized. The money was paid in 1898. Meanwhile so many seals were being killed every year that it was feared they would all soon be destroyed, and representatives of the powers interested tried to devise means for their protection. Many years later it was agreed that for 15 years—from December 15, 1911—no seals should be taken at sea.

Lord Stanley left Canada in 1893. He was afterwards first Lord Mayor of Liverpool, 1895-96; Mayor of Preston, 1901-2; and first Chancellor of Liverpool University. When his brother, Lord Derby, the 15th Earl, who had no sons, died in 1893, he succeeded him to the earldom. Lord Stanley (then Lord Derby, 16th Earl) died June 14, 1908. His son, the present Lord Derby (17th Earl), is well known. In 1900 he became Financial Secretary to the War Office, being promoted Postmaster-General in 1903. In 1915, as Director-General of recruiting, he originated the "Derby Scheme." He then became Secretary for War under Mr. Lloyd George, Mr. Bonar Law, and Mr. Baldwin, remaining at the War Office till 1918 when he was appointed Ambassador to France, a position which he resigned in 1920.



Aberdeen

(45th Governor-General of Canada).

1893—1898.

ABERDEEN

(45th Governor-General of Canada).

1893—1898.

JOHN Campbell Hamilton-Gordon, *Earl* (later *1st Marquis*) of *Aberdeen*, born in 1847, was appointed successor to Lord Stanley. He had been educated at St. Andrews (Scotland) and Oxford, and succeeded his brother (George —“the Sailor Earl,” drowned at sea) as *7th Earl* in 1870. One of Gladstone’s intimate friends, he was Lord Lieutenant of Ireland in 1886.

Next to the expansion and consolidation of the Dominion, the most important fact of recent Canadian history has been the strengthening of the ties binding Canada to the British Empire. In 1894, soon after the Earl of Aberdeen’s arrival as Governor, an event occurred which had an important bearing upon this movement: namely the gathering at Ottawa of the second

Colonial Conference (the first Colonial Conference had been held in London in 1887 on the occasion of Queen Victoria's Golden Jubilee—50th anniversary of her accession to the throne), being with its predecessor the precursor of the Imperial Conferences of later date. Delegates were present, apart from Canada, from New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, and South Africa. The Earl of Jersey, representing Great Britain, presided. The object of the Conference was to promote trade, the means of communication, and good feeling, among the colonies, thereby fostering the unity of the British Commonwealth. One result of this gathering has been the laying of a cable between Canada and Australia, completing an all-British system. The burden of this enterprise was shared by Great Britain, Australia, and Canada. In the year 1902 Sir Sandford Fleming, of Ottawa, who is commonly called the father of the Pacific cable, was able to send around the world, on British lines only, a message of congratulation to the Governor-General of Canada. Sir John Thompson, then Canadian Prime Minister, worked so hard that his health suffered, and, late in 1894, he took a brief holiday in Italy, and thence went to England where he was sworn in as a member of the Imperial Privy Council, but died suddenly while in Windsor Castle. The news caused general sorrow throughout the Dominion. His body was sent back to Canada in the warship *Blenheim* and he was buried at Halifax, Nova Scotia, with public honours. The next Premier of Canada, Sir Mackenzie

Bowell, was for many years editor and owner of a newspaper—the *Belleville (Ontario) Intelligencer*. During his premiership the Government of Newfoundland reopened the question of entering Confederation. The rights granted to the French fishermen on the coasts of Newfoundland in 1763 had grievously hindered the progress of the whole island. At the best of times many of the people were poor, and in 1895 one business house after another failed, and there was terrible distress. But the representatives of the Dominion and the Island could not agree on terms of union, and after a time there came also a return of prosperity. Several circumstances have since combined to improve conditions in Newfoundland. After long delays a railway was completed opening up the interior of the country with its vast lumber resources and its richness in copper and other valuable ores. In 1904 Great Britain made a treaty with France by which the latter country, in return for certain concessions in West Africa, gave up the special privileges of her fishermen on the so-called "French shore" of Newfoundland. Six years later, a long-standing dispute concerning the rights of American fishermen in that region was settled by arbitration at The Hague in such a way as to free Newfoundland from some ancient hindrances to her development.

For some years the question of separate schools for the Roman Catholic children in Manitoba was a source of trouble to the Dominion Government. When the Province was founded, a great proportion of the people

belonged to the Roman Catholic church and at first there were separate schools for the children of Roman Catholics and of Protestants. But after a time the latter far outnumbered the former, and in 1890 the Manitoba Provincial Legislature passed an Act providing for one general system of public schools, without regard to difference of religion. The Roman Catholics objected to the change and asked the Governor-General to interfere. His ministers tried in vain to persuade the Manitoba Government (Provincial Assembly) to alter the law; then, failing to influence it, they brought a Bill into the Dominion Parliament to give back to the Roman Catholics their separate schools. Parliament by that time, however, had sat for nearly its full term of five years, and before the Bill could be passed the House of Commons had to be dissolved. Sir Charles Tupper became Prime Minister instead of Sir Mackenzie Bowell; but, in the general election of 1896 which then took place, the long rule of the Conservatives which began in 1878 was brought to a close and the Liberals returned to power under the leadership of Mr. (later Sir) Wilfrid Laurier who became head of the government.

The long and eventful administration of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, which followed and was destined to last for $15\frac{1}{4}$ years, began on July 13, 1896. Amongst the members of the new Cabinet were Hon. W. S. Fielding, Sir Richard Cartwright, and Sir Oliver Mowat—the latter had been Prime Minister of Ontario for 24 years. He soon, however, resigned office to become Lieutenant-Governor of that Province.

One of Laurier's first tasks was to settle the Manitoba School question. A compromise was effected, and it was agreed that, though there were to be no distinctly separate schools, such religious teaching as the parents of the pupils approved was to be given henceforth in the public schools of the Province.

About this time there was great excitement in Canada about the discovery of new gold fields almost within the Arctic Circle. In 1896 gold in large quantities had been discovered in the Klondike district, in what was set apart and organized in 1898 as the Yukon Territory—north of British Columbia. But in spite of the great distance from more habitable lands, and in spite of all the terrors of its inhospitable climate, thousands of miners hurried into the country, and, within a few months after the news of the first great finds of gold reached the outer world, a little town of log huts and canvas tents, called Dawson City, had risen in the swamp beside the river. In 1898 the value of the gold from the Yukon amounted to about \$10,000,000 (approx. £2,000,000). In 1900 it reached £4,000,000, but in 1913 already the value was not much over \$4,250,000 (approx. £850,000).

Now it happened that the new gold-fields lay in the borderland between Alaska (United States Territory) and Canada. The former country, once belonging to Russia, had been bought by the United States in 1867, but the boundary line had never been properly defined, and a large tract of country was claimed by both the United States and Canada. In August 1898 a Joint High Commission was appointed

by the British and American Governments to try to arrange this and other questions in dispute, but they were unable to accomplish much. In October 1903, however, a new Commission (consisting of three Americans, two Canadians, and Lord Alverstone, the Chief Justice of England) met in London, and a majority of its members (including Lord Alverstone) decided on drawing a boundary line by which five-sixths of the disputed territory was awarded to the United States.

In 1897, in making its first Budget (or plan for providing money for governing the country), the new (Laurier) ministry took a step that greatly pleased the British people and led to increased trade between the Motherland and Canada. It was provided that the duties on many kinds of goods coming from Great Britain should be lower than those on similar goods from foreign countries. This gives the British merchant an advantage over foreign merchants when doing business in Canada, and is known as "The British Preferential Tariff." There was a difficulty, however. Years before, Great Britain had made treaties with Germany and other countries which, it was claimed, bound Canada to admit their goods on the same terms as those from the Motherland. Great Britain accordingly gave notice that after July 1898 these treaties should no longer be in force. This made Germany very angry, and she raised the duty on Canadian goods sent to that country. Canadian statesmen tried to make her see reason, explaining that they were willing to give her all the trade advantages they gave France or any

other foreign country if she would lower her duties to the old rates again. This she refused to do, and, at last, in 1903 the Canadian Government put a specially high duty—called a surtax—on goods from Germany. This so reduced the trade between the two countries that in 1910 Germany gave way and Canada took off the surtax.

During the long Liberal administration at Ottawa other events besides the passing of the Preferential Tariff and the great British immigration had drawn Great Britain and Canada closer together. On June 20, 1897, Queen Victoria had reigned for 60 years. This was a longer reign than that of any other British Sovereign. Her "Diamond Jubilee," as it was called, was hailed with rejoicing in every part of her vast Empire. Sir Wilfrid Laurier went to England to represent the Dominion in the family of British nations, and was honoured alike by sovereign and people. The colonial Premiers assembled in London seized the opportunity of holding another meeting to discuss matters of inter-colonial trade, etc., and the third such Conference—this time called Imperial Conference—was then held.

Upon the defeat at the general election of 1896 of Sir Charles Tupper, Lord Aberdeen, the Governor-General of the day, refused to allow certain judgeships and senatorships—appointments made after defeat at the polls and before going out of office—to be filled, on the ground that his advisers had lost the confidence of the people. The precedent thus created was accepted by the Laurier government in 1911, when it suffered defeat on the Reciprocity

question, and apparently commends itself to Canadian popular opinion.

In 1898 Lord Minto replaced Lord Aberdeen as Governor-General. The latter in 1905 was again appointed by the Liberals Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, a post (which he held previously for six months in 1886) that he retained until 1915, when on his retirement that year he was created 1st Marquis of Aberdeen and Temair. In 1877 Lord Aberdeen married Hon. Ishbel Maria Marjoribanks, daughter of the 1st Baron Tweedmouth. Lady Aberdeen has been ever prominent in philanthropic circles, identifying herself especially with the International Council of Women movement, of which association she has been President for 1893-99 and since 1904. While in Canada Lord and Lady Aberdeen visited every part of that vast country and, by the sincere interest they evinced in its progress, and their great personal affability, endeared themselves to all classes of the people there. Their present residence is House of Cromar, Tarland, Aberdeenshire (Scotland).



Minto

(46th Governor-General of Canada).

1898—1904.

MINTO

(46th Governor-General of Canada).

1898—1904.

GILBERT *John Murray-Kynynmond Elliot, 4th Earl of Minto*, followed Lord Aberdeen as Governor-General. Born in 1847, he was the son of the third Earl, whom he succeeded in 1891, and great-grandson of Sir Gilbert Elliot, 1st Earl of Minto, who had been Viceroy—1794-96—of Corsica (which island the revolt of the Corsican Paoli in 1793 placed under British rule, but was regained by France in 1796) and Governor-General of India 1807-13.

He was educated at Eton and Cambridge, and joined the Scots Guards in 1867, retiring in 1870. He served with the Turkish army in 1877 and with the British in the Afghan War, 1879; was Private Secretary to Lord Roberts at Cape Colony in 1881, and was a volunteer in the Egyptian campaign (Arabi Pasha revolt), 1882. Military secretary, 1883-85, to Lord Lansdowne, at the time Governor-General of Canada, he was chief of

staff to the Government forces in the Canadian North West Rebellion of 1885.

About 1898 the peopling of the Canadian West began, and a multitude of settlers poured into this new land of promise. The United States had no longer any great area of unsettled fertile lands, while Canada offered many millions of acres still unbroken. American farmers became attracted and gradually crossed the boundary to make their homes in Western Canada, until, in a single year, 139,000 of them had moved there. In that same year 150,000 immigrants poured in from Great Britain. Many came, too, from Continental Europe. In about fifteen years a total of 3,000,000 had arrived in Canada, the tide of immigration reaching high-water mark in 1912-13—just before the Great War—when in one year 402,432 settlers were received. Never before had a nation of five millions faced the task of assimilating so vast a horde of newcomers.

The year 1898 (February 15) saw the blowing up in the harbour of Havana (Cuba) of the American battleship *Maine* and the war in the spring of the same year between the United States and Spain, which, lasting till mid-August, ended in favour of the former; Spain being forced to relinquish her sovereignty over Cuba and to cede Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands to the United States.

In 1898, also, through the efforts of Sir William Mulock, then Postmaster-General of Canada, a letter rate of two cents an ounce (penny postage) was adopted, and the "Imperial penny postage" inaugurated between the United Kingdom, Canada, Newfoundland,

Cape Colony, and Natal. This rate was afterwards extended to other parts of the British dominions.

The chief event of 1899 was the Boer (or South African) War which broke out in October of that year between Great Britain and the South African Republics of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. Public feeling was aroused in Canada which at once manifested its desire to aid the Motherland by offering men to help in the war. Within a few weeks of the outbreak, a contingent of over 1,000 men, including representatives from every Province, was enlisted, equipped, and sailed from Quebec City for South Africa, where it reached Cape Town before the end of November and received a most enthusiastic welcome. Australia and New Zealand equally offered help. But the war lasted $2\frac{1}{2}$ years, and Canada, like the other Dominions, continued to give aid until Peace was signed on May 31, 1902. Including the contingent already mentioned, the troop of horse (Strathcona Horse), 597 strong, raised and equipped by the patriotism and munificence of Lord Strathcona, and those who enlisted in the South African Constabulary, Canada sent out six separate contingents, comprising over 6,500 gallant officers and men—more than Wolfe had on the Plains of Abraham. It was Canada's first adventure in war overseas. In many a fight the Canadian soldiers won laurels for themselves and their country, and the names of Paardeberg and Harts River will long bring mingled pride and pain to Canadian hearts. But the war left also a new sympathy and unity

amongst the different nations of the British Commonwealth. The Canadian casualties were 88 killed in action, 252 wounded, and 136 who died of disease—enteric fever mostly—or accidental injury.

In the midst of the sorrow and suffering caused by the war, every land under the British flag was thrown into deeper mourning by the death of Queen Victoria. She passed away on January 22nd, 1901, after a glorious reign of nearly 64 years. She was not only a wise ruler, but a good, true-hearted, woman. The Queen's eldest son, Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, now ascended the throne, taking the title of Edward VII. This choice pleased his people, for the name of Edward has been connected with the history of England and her kings for a thousand years. His reign lasted less than ten years, but by his great tact he helped England to make with France the good understanding, or "*Entente Cordiale*," which proved of such immense importance during the recent World War. Edward VII's eldest son, the Duke of Clarence, had died in 1892, so his second son, George, Duke of Cornwall and York (afterwards Prince of Wales and now our King, George V.), had become heir to the throne.

In 1900 the Liberal Government, with Laurier as Premier, was sustained in the Dominion elections.

In the autumn of 1901, the year which saw the late Queen laid to rest, the Duke and Duchess of Cornwall and York (now King George V. and Queen Mary) made a tour of the Empire and were everywhere enthusias-

tically welcomed. Trained as a naval officer, the present King already knew much at first hand of British lands overseas. The Orient Line S.S. *Ophir* was specially chartered for the cruise. They sailed first to Australia for the opening of the first Parliament of the new Commonwealth (inaugurated January 1st, 1901), and then visited New Zealand and South Africa. Lastly they spent five weeks of the beautiful autumn season in Canada. In the following summer (1902), there was a great gathering in London from all parts of the Empire for the coronation of King Edward VII., which, however, had to be deferred from June till August, because he fell suddenly and dangerously ill. All the Dominions and Colonies were represented at the Coronation ceremonies, and no representatives from the Dominions over the seas were more graciously received than those of Canada.

The Canadian West needed railways. Otherwise it could not carry to the markets of the world the grain from its vast wheatfields and the cattle from its wide-spreading ranches. Railways were built with an outlay of capital which astonishes us with its profusion. It had been considered an amazing feat when the single line of the Canadian Pacific had been pushed across the continent. But twenty years after its completion, two other lines were being built from coast to coast. The Grand Trunk Pacific (proposed in 1902) was built in close alliance with the Grand Trunk Railway of Eastern Canada, which was ambitious to rival the Canadian Pacific in the West. The other line—the Canadian Northern—was conceived

MINTO

and carried out by the private enterprise of two remarkable men, Mackenzie and Mann. In respect to both railways it is true that hope and courage ran beyond the limits of caution. The scattered population of the West was not yet adequate to support the cost of these stupendous enterprises, and, in the end, it became necessary for the Canadian Government to take over both lines, which have since been amalgamated under the name of Canadian National Railways (incorporating also the Intercolonial Railway and Quebec and Lake St. John Railway).

In 1902 the United States had resolved to build the Panama Canal, and the following year the Department of Panama (comprising the Isthmus)—which was part of the Republic of Columbia—revolted and seceded from the latter, the United States recognizing the new State's independence. Subsequently they obtained from Panama the necessary strip of land, five miles wide on either side of the proposed waterway, running across the isthmus.

On May 8, 1902, occurred the tragedy of Mount Pelée, a volcano of the Island of Martinique, West Indies, when an eruption destroyed almost instantly the town of St. Pierre and 30,000 people.

Lord Minto left Canada in 1904 and was Viceroy of India 1905-10, when as such he had to cope with "unrest" in Bengal and elsewhere. He died March 4, 1914, and was succeeded in the title by his son, Victor Gilbert, Viscount Melgund (born 1891), who married in 1921 a Canadian girl, Miss Marion Cook, daughter of G. W. Cook, Esq., of Montreal.



Grey

(47th Governor-General of Canada).

1904—1911.

GREY

(47th Governor-General of Canada).

1904—1911.

ALBERT *Henry George, 4th Earl Grey*, was sent to take Lord Minto's place in office. Born in St. James's Palace, November 28, 1851, he was the son of General the Hon. Charles Grey, Private Secretary to Queen Victoria, and was educated at Harrow and Cambridge. He succeeded his uncle (Henry Grey, 3rd Earl) in the title in 1894. He was Liberal M.P. for S. Northumberland 1880-85, and Northumberland (Tyneside) 1885-6. A great traveller, he was in South Africa in 1894 when his uncle died; was Administrator of Rhodesia 1896-97, and became afterwards a director and vice-president of the British South Africa Company (1898-1904).

The Liberal (Laurier) Administration was returned in both the Canadian general elec-

tions of 1904 and 1908. By an Act of Parliament introduced by the Government of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, two new Provinces, Alberta and Saskatchewan, were created from a portion of the North-West Territories, formally coming into being on September 1st, 1905. Edmonton was chosen as the capital of Alberta, and Regina as that of Saskatchewan; each of these Provinces, besides its representation in the Dominion Parliament, was to have, of course, its own Provincial Legislature. A barrister, Mr. A. C. Rutherford, was the first Premier of Alberta; and a journalist, Mr. Walter Scott, the first Premier of Saskatchewan.

In April 1906 San Francisco was in large part destroyed by a great earthquake, followed by a three-day fire, through which 4 square miles of the city, comprising some 28,000 buildings, were laid waste, the damage being assessed at nearly £100,000,000, and where about 500 persons were killed. On January 14th of the following year (1907) Jamaica was also visited by an earthquake which shook Kingston, the capital, into ruins, involving the loss of 1,000 lives and injuring as many.

In the same year (1907) the Imperial Conference, as it is now called, met in London, and amongst its members this time was to be found General Botha—only a few years back a bitter enemy of Great Britain on the battlefield—representing the Transvaal Colony. It was then decided that the Conference should meet every four years.

In 1908 the Tercentenary of the founding of Quebec by Champlain was celebrated with

great magnificence at that romantic city. Brilliant, unforgettable, pageants—representing well-known Canadian historical events—were held on the Plains of Abraham. Representatives were present from France and from the United States, and, to add Imperial significance to the festivities, the King was represented by the heir to the throne, the Prince of Wales (now George V.). The enthusiasm with which the Prince of Wales was received showed to the world the loyalty of Canadians and their determination to do their share in maintaining the British Commonwealth's dignity and power.

In 1910 (May 6th) the startling news was sent over the world that Edward VII. was dead. Nowhere was the news received with more sincere regret than in Canada, which King Edward had visited in person when Prince of Wales fifty years before. The whole country joined in mourning for one who had conciliated among his subjects as well as in foreign lands universal respect for his political insight, tact, and kingly dignity.

In June 1911, the coronation of the new, our present, King took place, and old London was once more the scene of gorgeous processions that impressed upon the mighty throngs in the streets the reality and vastness of the British Empire overseas—it being the King's special wish to have it so. The Dominions were therefore largely represented.

The Parliament of Canada had a very lengthy session in 1911, despite a welcome holiday to enable some of its members to go to England for the coronation. It happened that

the old question of trade agreement with the United States had come up again, and there was very strong feeling for and against it. The farmers, especially those in the new grain-growing provinces of the West, had long been urgent for "Reciprocity," but the manufacturers, as a rule, were averse to it. In 1909, however, the United States Government, which had refused several times since 1866 to make a new Reciprocity treaty with Canada, had offered to lower their import duty on certain commodities, if Canada would do the same. Accordingly the two governments had worked out an agreement, and the United States had passed a law to give it effect; but when Sir Wilfrid Laurier tried to do the same he was met with such determined opposition that he could not get the Bill through the House. Opponents of the measure claimed that reciprocity in trade would bring Canada under the financial control of New York, even as lead her in the end to join the American Union—in short the annexation bogey was raised. At the same time they were suspicious of any commercial agreement which should favour Great Britain less than the United States. They were determined to remain a British state. In fact, when Laurier asked Lord Grey, the Governor-General, to dissolve Parliament, so that the people, by means of a general election, might decide for or against Reciprocity, a most exciting campaign followed. For weeks before election day (Sept. 21, 1911) the best speakers of each side hurried from one meeting to another, trying to persuade the electors to vote with them. The end of it was that the govern-

ment of Sir Wilfrid Laurier—which had been uninterruptedly in power for 15 years—and the Reciprocity Bill suffered defeat at the polls, and on October 6th the Liberal ministry resigned. Sir Wilfrid Laurier had served as Premier of Canada under three Governors-General. Hon. Robert Borden (as was his title till he was knighted in 1914), a Nova Scotian by birth and leader of the Conservative party since 1901, now became Prime Minister.

Lord Grey, on his return to England, after in 1911 leaving Canada where he was a very popular Governor, threw himself into public work with zest, two of the chief projects being Dominion House (an imposing building which he proposed might be erected on the then vacant "island-block" facing Aldwych, at the foot of Kingsway, now occupied by Bush House and adjoining structures, and where would have been centred under one roof all the Dominion Offices in London; the plan falling through from the Dominions' indifference to its realization), and the Public House Trust. He was also keenly interested in agricultural reform, and worked for an Irish Convention. He died August 29, 1917.



Connaught

(48th Governor-General of Canada).

1911—1916.

CONNAUGHT

(48th Governor-General of Canada).

1911—1916.

ARTHUR *William Patrick Albert, Duke of Connaught*, third son of Queen Victoria, born May 1, 1850, succeeded Lord Grey as Governor-General of Canada. He was educated for the army and in 1868 entered the Engineers. In 1874 he was made Duke of Connaught and Strathearn. He served in the Rifle Brigade and the 7th Hussars, and became a General in 1893. He saw service in Canada (Red River Rebellion) in 1870 and commanded the Brigade of Guards in Egypt in 1882 at the time of the Egyptian Insurrection under Arabi Pasha, being at Tell-el-Kebîr (where Arabi was defeated by the British troops) and El-Kassâsîn. From 1886-90 he had

a command in India. Commands at home followed, these including Aldershot 1893-98, and Ireland 1900-4. In 1902 the Duke was made Field-Marshal and in 1904 Inspector-General. His last military post was that of commander-in-chief in the Mediterranean 1907-9. In 1879 he married Louise, daughter of Prince Frederick Charles of Prussia (nephew of Emperor William I. of Germany), a Prussian General surnamed "the Red Prince," who served his country with distinction in several wars, notably the Franco-German war of 1870-71.

One of the most important matters with which the new Canadian Government (Conservative) returned at the general election of 1911, with the Hon. Robert Borden as Premier, had to deal was the new Canadian Naval Service, established by the Liberals (Sir Wilfrid Laurier's Naval Service Bill) in 1910. The projected "Royal Canadian Navy" was to serve, in case of need, with the Royal Navy of Britain. There was a new Department of Naval Service at Ottawa, and a Naval College had been opened at Halifax, Nova Scotia, where 20 boys (selected from all over Canada by competitive examination) were being educated and trained. Two protected cruisers, the *Niobe*, of 11,000 tons, manned by 705 officers and men, and the *Rainbow*, of 3,600 tons, with 273 officers and men, had been purchased by the Canadian Liberal Government in 1910, and tenders for the building of four other vessels and six destroyers had been received in the spring of 1911; but the building of these had not been begun when the Lib-

erals went out of office. In the summer of 1912 Mr. Borden and three other Canadian Ministers went to England to discuss with the British Admiralty the question of naval defence. After his return he brought in a Bill "to authorize measures for increasing the naval forces of the Empire." Instead, however, of beginning at once to form a Canadian Navy, he proposed a contribution of \$35,000,000 for the building in England of three of the largest and strongest ships of war, which (while bearing historic Canadian names) should, for a time at least, serve as part of the British navy. Such enormous ships could not of course be built in Canada without making new shipyards, but the British Government intended to give orders for smaller vessels to be built in the Dominion. If Canada, however, thus shared in the defence of the Empire, it was considered only fair that she should have a voice in Britain's foreign policy, so it was announced that a Canadian minister should in future spend the whole or part of each year in England, so that he might be consulted on important steps in foreign policy, and might attend the meetings of the British Committee of Imperial Defence. After the South African War Britain had realized that she had few friends, and the minds of some of her statesmen had turned to plans for so drawing together the whole British Empire that it should be secure from attacks, and at this time, as a sorrowing world knows now so well, the nations were being carried on the tide of events to the awful climax of a World War. The danger grew nearer. Germany was build-

ing a great fleet, and Britain was the state against which this menace was directed. In 1910 the whole British Empire was awaking to this and Canada responded with her first step toward naval defence by acquiring two men-of-war as training ships and by creating the naval college above quoted. In substance Mr. Borden proposed—since there was urgency—that, pending the shaping of a permanent naval policy, Canada should provide three “Dreadnoughts” to be added to the British fleet.

There was immediately a fierce party fight at Ottawa. Sir Wilfrid Laurier and the Liberals stood out for a Canadian fleet, preferring the plan of beginning with smaller vessels and naval stations at Canadian ports. For months the debate was kept up, as had been the case over the Reciprocity Bill. So bitter was the struggle that at last the rules of the House of Commons were changed so that a limit might be put to the time spent in debate, and the closure adopted to end discussion. In this way the measure was forced by the Conservatives through the Commons, and their Naval Contribution Bill passed by that House on May 15, 1913. But the Liberal majority in the Senate rejected it, and it could not become law.

In June 1913 General Sir Ian Hamilton, the British Inspector-General of Overseas Military Forces, paid a visit to Canada at the request of the Dominion Government, as General French had done in 1910. Sir Ian made various suggestions to improve the effectiveness of Canadian troops.

In 1912 the Provinces of Quebec, Ontario, and Manitoba, were enlarged by the addition

of vast areas of wild, largely unexplored, country towards the North. Quebec now has a long northern coast bordering on Hudson Bay and Hudson Strait, receiving that year the whole of the Ungava district—354,961 square miles—, more than double its former extent. Ontario acquired 146,400 square miles, giving it a salt water coast of some 600 miles on Hudson Bay. Manitoba, formerly referred to as the “postage stamp Province,” on account of its then small square area on the map, at present extends like its western sisters, Saskatchewan and Alberta, to the 60th parallel of N. latitude, and, by its extension also, like Ontario and Quebec, to Hudson Bay, has become one of Canada’s “maritime” provinces—possessing one or two ancient seaports there. It received for its share 178,100 square miles.

A terrible event of the year 1912 was the loss at sea of the huge White Star steamship *Titanic*. On April 14th, when racing across the ocean on her maiden voyage from Southampton to New York, she struck an iceberg and sank, and approximately 1,500 persons, including some well-known citizens of Canada, perished. About two years later, on May 29th 1914, the great Canadian Pacific liner, the *Empress of Ireland*, outward bound from Quebec, was rammed by a Norwegian steamer, the *Storstad*. The collision happened at night in the St. Lawrence river, 10 miles east of Father Point, and 900 lives were lost.

On April 7, 1914, the last spike was driven on the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway running from Winnipeg across the Rocky mountains to

Prince Rupert, British Columbia, on the Pacific coast. The last spike had been driven on the National Transcontinental Railway line (both lines have since been merged into the Canadian National Railway system) between Winnipeg and Moncton (with the exception of the Quebec Bridge) on November 17, 1913.

During the summer of 1914 the Panama Canal was formally opened for commercial traffic, and in the first $10\frac{1}{2}$ months of its use nearly 1,100 vessels passed through.

On January 21, 1914, Lord Strathcona, who for nearly 18 years had been Canadian High Commissioner in London, passed away at the great age of 93. Rather less than two years later (October 1915) there died, at his home in Kent, a former High Commissioner, Sir Charles Tupper. He had passed his 94th birthday and was the last survivor of the "Fathers of Confederation."

CANADA AND THE WORLD WAR.

1914-1918.

It happened that in the early part of the year 1914 the minds of many Canadians and Americans were especially occupied with thoughts of peace. They pointed with pride to the fact that the long international boundary line between the two countries was undefended by a single fort, that no armed vessel might sail the Great Lakes, and that, despite occasions when the United States and Canada had almost come to blows, the peace between them had never actually been broken for over 99 years. The two nations were indeed looking

forward to a speedy and joyous celebration of a "Century of Peace."

Suddenly, before the Peace Centenary came round, one of these friendly neighbours—Canada—was plunged, in common with all other countries belonging to the British Empire, into the turmoil and excitement of a war which, though being waged at a distance of thousands of miles from her shores, threatened her very national existence and the liberties of every land beneath the sun. No one who lived in Canada through the momentous days of the summer of 1914 will ever forget their tension. A quarrel had arisen between Austria, ally of Germany, and Serbia, out of the assassination on June 28, 1914, at Sarajevo (capital of Bosnia, a Slav province, then bordering on Serbia and annexed by Austria-Hungary in 1908) of the Austrian heir to the throne, the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, and his morganatic wife, by an Austrian subject of Serb nationality. This crime instigated Austria to make demands upon Serbia to which no self-respecting nation could accede. In vain Russia, France, and England, endeavoured to avert a conflict. On July 28, one month after the murder of the Archduke, Austria declared war upon Serbia. Thereupon events moved with terrible rapidity. Within a week Russia had begun to mobilize to protect Serbia; Germany had thereupon declared war upon Russia, and France was drawn in as Russia's ally. Germany, determined to strike at France on her weakest side, had violated the neutrality of the defenceless Duchy of Luxemburg and the Kingdom of Belgium (whose neutrality she, in common with

France and England, was bound by a solemn treaty to respect). Russia and France were therefore already at war with Germany when, on August 4th, Britain entered the conflict. Great Britain had declared war on Germany because (a) of her pledged word to Belgium and (b) her conviction that Germany wished to crush and ruin France, to which she was bound by the ties of the "Entente Cordiale."

But Germany, though prepared in advance, made many blunders in her reckonings. She did not expect the heroic resistance of the Belgians, which delayed the advance of her armies for nearly two weeks and gave France and Britain themselves time to hastily prepare. She had thought she could persuade Britain to stay out of the war; she despised Britain's "contemptible little army" (as the boastful Kaiser called it), and was most disagreeably astonished when the Dominions, and all the Colonies and India, joined Great Britain heart and soul against her. There had been doubts whether the whole British Empire would be a unit in the face of real danger, but these were at once dispelled. Australia, Canada, and every other part of the Empire, knowing what ideals were at stake in front of the German menace, sprang to arms. The British peoples themselves hardly realized how strong were the ties that made them one until these were tested by the fearful strain of the life-and-death struggle with Germany.

On the very day that war was declared, Canada began to gather (at Valcartier Camp, near Quebec City) an army to help in the desperate strife, and in seven weeks her first contingent of 33,000 men was ready to embark.

This force (the largest that had ever crossed the Atlantic at one time) left Gaspé Bay (Que.) on October 3rd, convoyed by over 30 war vessels, and landed in England 11 days later. They were only the first of many thousands. Contingent followed contingent, and during four long and wearing years Canada emptied her young manhood into Europe.

But before the first Canadian contingent reached Britain much had happened in Europe. The allied French and British armies, after boldly attacking the German hosts, had been forced to make a fighting retreat southwards. Part of the German army was already within 25 miles of Paris. The French Government had been removed from Paris to Bordeaux, and many people even expected the speedy fall of the capital. This was not to be. Taking advantage of a risky move on the part of the German general Von Kluck, the French and British armies struck the enemy swiftly and unexpectedly on his flank and won the famous battle of the Marne (September, 1914). It ended with the retreat of the invaders to the river Aisne, to the North, and here, when the first Canadian troops reached England, had already begun the grinding, wearisome, warfare of the trenches.

It was at St. Eloi, a few miles from Ypres, that the "Princess Pat's"*, a Canadian regiment thus called in honour of Princess Patricia,

**Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry*. Raised and equipped for active service at the outbreak of the War by Lt.-Col. Andrew Hamilton Gault, of Montreal, who accompanied it to France as second in command, being appointed Commanding Officer in 1918. The Regiment returned to Ottawa in 1919, and was disbanded. Lt.-Col. Gault was wounded thrice and mentioned in despatches four times; D.S.O., 1915.

daughter of the Duke of Connaught, at the time Governor-General of Canada, (first of the Canadians to take part in a highly important engagement) received their "baptism of fire" on March 15, 1915. Five weeks later, on April 22, Canadian troops made a glorious record by resisting at St. Julien and Langemarck (before Ypres) the horrible surprise of the enemy's first gas attack. Under these strange poison clouds French coloured troops from Africa who held the line on their left had been affected to such an extent that an extensive gap had been formed opening the way to Ypres and Calais. The Germans, pouring through this break, captured four British guns that had been lent to the French. During the night 2,000 Canadians charged into the midst of 7,000 Germans, drove them from their new position and retook the guns. Nor was that all. For days the Canadians, outflanked, unsupported by heavy artillery, held grimly on against overwhelming odds till reinforcements came. The cost was heavy but the Canadian line held. Had it broken, it seems certain that nothing could have kept the Germans from reaching the Channel. Once there they could have made that highway of ships unsafe, and could even have thrown shells into English towns. After this incident Canada was not nervous as to whether her men could fight. They ranked, in truth, among the best troops in the fighting-line.

In May of the same year the Canadians again proved their mettle in the battle of Festubert, during which they were in the forefront of the fight for ten days; in the furious

but fruitless engagement of Givenchy, when they gained their objectives, but, owing to lack of support, could not hold them; and in the capture of Courcellette and Moquet Farm during the great Battle of the Somme—which, beginning Dominion Day (July 1) 1916, on a 25 mile front astride the Somme river, lasted till the middle of November. The advance on Courcellette was notable for the first appearance of the famous “tanks”—which the British invented—which dismayed and appalled the Germans, but delighted the hearts of the British soldiers, not only with their effectiveness but with their ungainly oddity.

The war on the sea presented from the outset important events. Though for years, however, Germany had been building a powerful fleet, throughout the War it made no serious attempt to dispute the command of the sea with Britain's famous navy. At first some German cruisers did a good deal of harm to trading ships, but, one by one, these raiders were destroyed. The German Far Eastern squadron, five cruisers under Von Spee—the only considerable German squadron at large in August 1914,—sought to return from the Pacific (China station) by way of Cape Horn. Off Coronel (south of Valparaiso), on the Chilean coast, they encountered on November 1, 1914, four British cruisers under Craddock, and, through heavier batteries and advantage of light, sank two of them: the *Good Hope* and *Monmouth*. But on December 8, Admiral Sturdee's avenging squadron settled accounts with Von Spee off the Falkland Islands, when the whole German squadron was caught by the

British force, four German cruisers being sunk on the spot and the fifth (which had escaped) a few months later, while three accompanying transports were captured. In the same month German cruisers came over and shelled Scarborough and other Yorkshire coast towns, killing over 100 civilians.

On January 24, 1915, the German battle cruisers were caught in the North Sea on the Dogger Bank and the German armoured cruiser *Blücher* was sunk. The most important naval engagement of the war was the Battle of Jutland (off Jutland, Denmark), on May 31st, 1916, with indecisive result, the Germans inflicting probably heavier loss than they sustained. Be it as it may, they never afterwards dared to come out to meet the British fleet in open fight.

As a matter of fact, Germany put much more faith in its submarines than its battleships. With the "U" boats it hoped at first to weaken the British navy very greatly, but did not succeed in sinking many ships of war. They did, however, sink an enormous number of merchant and passenger ships belonging to the Allies and neutral countries, causing the death of thousands of sailors and non-combatants and the loss of vast quantities of food and other goods. There was a cry of horror throughout the world when in 1915 (May 7) they sank, off the Old Head of Kinsale, E. coast of Ireland, the *Lusitania*, on her way from New York to Liverpool with 1,255 passengers and 651 crew. Of this total number of 1,906 which she carried, 1,198, including 124 Americans, were either drowned

or killed. This crime caused angry protest in the United States and was one of the influences which determined America's entry into the war at a later date. As time went on, the German submarine warfare grew more and more cruel and reckless, sinking hospital-ships, merchant vessels, and fishing-boats, without warning, and by 1917 these losses caused a great deal of anxiety.

As wonderful as this new warfare under the sea was the war in the air. From the very first, airplanes were used for observation and in bombing. There were amazing battles in the air. Zeppelins, great airships, crossed the North Sea and dropped bombs at night on civilian London, also over Paris. But any demoralising effect of this form of 'frightfulness' was counterbalanced by its stimulus of the fighting spirit. Successful defences were improvised successively against these night raids (1916)—the Zeppelin arm was met and broken in the autumn of 1916,—daylight aeroplane raids (1917), and night aeroplane raids (1918); but each phase of the attack first enjoyed a spell of immunity and success, and a total of some 50 airship raids, and a slightly higher number of aeroplane raids, over Great Britain from December 24, 1914 to June 17, 1918 caused 1,400 deaths, four-fifths of them civilian. Paris also suffered badly, and in 1918 long range bombardment was added there to the dangers of multiplied air raids. Germany had by that time a gun which threw shells into Paris from a distance of 70 miles. One of these fell upon the church of St. Gervais (near the Hôtel-de-Ville) on the afternoon of Good

Friday, March 29, 1918, causing the death of 75 of the crowded congregation and injuries to 90 others.

For 3½ long years the trench warfare lasted and neither side was able to break through. Meanwhile things had not been going well in the East. Bulgaria, which had joined the Teuton alliance in October 1915, had helped to conquer unhappy Serbia. Montenegro was next overrun; and Roumania, which declared war on Germany and her allies at the end of August 1916, was at the feet of her enemies before the close of the year. Early in 1915 a British fleet had tried to force a way through the Dardanelles with a view to the capture of Constantinople. Then (summer 1915) troops were landed on the Gallipoli Peninsula, only to be withdrawn in December, after gaining practically nothing and suffering heavy losses. Here the Australians won imperishable fame. But the efforts of the British in the Moslem Near East read, on the whole, like a page of romance, and in 1918 they took two ancient and world-famed oriental capitals, Baghdad and Jerusalem.

In the year 1917 the Allies suffered a most unfortunate set-back. The revolution in Russia and her consequent defection had set free many German divisions to strengthen the enemy forces on the Western front. This, too, was a year of ups and downs with the Italian campaign. On the other hand, Germany, by persistent provocation of, and insult to, the United States, brought that wealthy and powerful nation into the ranks of her enemies in 1917. On the Western front there was con-

tinuous fighting amid great hardships throughout the winter of 1916-17. The result was that France regained a thousand miles of her territory, which had been reduced to utter desolation. The Germans tried to make a stand on the (so-called) Hindenburg line, but the Allies were determined to press them further back. In their first onward rush in 1914 the Germans had captured Vimy Ridge, a long strip of slightly elevated land commanding the manufacturing city of Lens and its coal-fields, the wide plains of Cambrai, and the approaches to Arras. On the morning of Easter Monday, April 9th, 1917, Sir Douglas Haig began an offensive on a front of about 12 miles, and to the Canadians was assigned the task of taking Vimy Ridge. "Zero hour"—as the time for commencing an attack is called—was at 5.30 on a bitterly cold morning. Suddenly "at the appointed moment the British guns broke into such a fire as had yet been seen on no battleground on earth." "As our men went over the parapets. . . the heaven above them was one canopy of shrieking steel." It obliterated the enemy's front trenches and cut up his wire entanglements. The Canadians did splendidly, reaching the crest of the ridge with a bound, then fighting their way doggedly "over a mile of plateau," from shell hole to shell hole, under terrible fire. In a week's fighting they captured 4,000 prisoners and a vast quantity of guns and war stores.

In the same district, near Lens, at "Hill 70," which is a mere "hummock" in a level country, the Canadian troops did excellent service

during the terrible battle that on August 15th (1917) began at dawn with an awful artillery barrage. In six minutes this hammered the German front line trenches "into pulp"; lifted to a hundred yards further on; continued its work of destruction there for another six minutes; lifted again, and so on. Close behind this barrage followed the infantry with machine guns, bombs, and bayonets. The Germans fought desperately, day and night. There were many counter-attacks. Positions won were often lost again, and there was terrible hand-to-hand fighting with small parties of the enemy hidden in cellars and ruined houses, which "called for much individual dash and initiative." The Canadians took all their objectives.

Incessant rain and seas of mud made the third battle of Ypres, during which the Canadians took Passchendaele Ridge, a terrible test of courage and endurance, and again they showed themselves worthy brothers-in-arms of the men of Britain's equally gallant old and new armies. On October 26th (1917) the Canadians first won Bellevue Spur and a little hill south of Passchendaele. Four days later they made other gains, holding them against desperate counter-attacks, and, at last, on November 6th, after some days of dry weather, they carried the whole of the long-fought-for Ridge. Thus, as John Buchan says in "Nelson's History of the War": "it fell to Canada by this crowning victory at Passchendaele to avenge the gas attack of April, 1915, when only her dauntless two brigades stood between Ypres and the enemy."

During the winter of 1917-18 the Germans were able to strengthen their Western armies with troops from the Russian front and with prisoners released by the Russians. On March 21st, 1918 they began a violent offensive at the point where the British and French armies joined. The British were forced back towards Arras and (some of them) across the Somme. They had to evacuate many towns. The French came to their aid, but for weeks the German advance continued, reaching on June 2nd (1918) to within 40 miles of the French capital. On June 13th, however, the Germans were repulsed with great loss when attacking Compiègne, but about a month later (July 1918) they attacked on a 60 mile front stretching east and west of Rheims—on a scale not known before—and crossed the river Marne at several places. Early in 1918 trench warfare ended.

By this time a large number of soldiers had arrived in France from the United States, and in August 1918 the First American Field Army was organized under General Pershing. Another circumstance besides the coming of the Americans strengthened the Allies when at last, on March 28, 1918, the whole of their forces were placed under the command of one man, Marshal Foch. The Canadians were not in the earlier struggle during this great German offensive; they had been kept in reserve. But their turn soon came. On August 8th they played an important part in driving back the enemy before Amiens. In July 1918 Foch had begun by attacking the Germans between

the Aisne and the Marne, and in August started his successful offensive which lasted through September and October while, advancing steadily, he took hundreds of thousands of prisoners, and was only ended on November 11th by the German acceptance of an Armistice on the Allies' terms. Bulgaria, Turkey, and Austria, had previously collapsed. Early in September the Canadians had driven a breach of five miles in the German front between Qu  ant and Drocourt. At the end of the month they took part in the crossing of the Canal du Nord and the capture of Bourlon Wood. Later they distinguished themselves in the battle—one of the most desperate of the war—fought before Cambrai, and on October 9th were the first to enter the ruined city. Mons was occupied by them only a few hours before hostilities ceased.

In the meanwhile Kaiser Wilhelm and the Crown Prince had fled to Holland, after signing papers resigning all right to the German throne.

On November 21st the German fleet surrendered. 9 battleships, 12 cruisers, and 50 destroyers, were taken into the Firth of Forth by Admiral Beatty. The enemy submarines were given up later.

On January 18th, 1919, the forty-eight anniversary of the proclamation of the German Empire in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles, the Peace Conference held its first full session in the French Foreign Office at Paris. The Treaty of Versailles was subsequently signed on June 28, 1919. Its first 26 articles established the League of Nations.

When the war began, Canada had a permanent military force of 3,000 men, and an Active Militia enrolment of 60,000. Before it ended she had 156,250 fighting men in France, besides 50,000 railway and forestry troops in the United Kingdom and France. Altogether she had sent overseas 418,052 men in the Canadian Expeditionary Force.

It is impossible even to suggest in such limited space the effect of the Great War on Canada and her people. Indeed, it is quite beyond our power to estimate it. In the years immediately before the War, a great proportion of Canadians appeared to be very much taken up with the concerns of themselves and their own country, but the War has caused both Government and people to take broader and less self-centred views.

Apart from the appalling loss of life on the battlefields, and the number of men who returned home to Canada injured or broken in health, the occurrence which seemed to bring war nearest was the terrible explosion of a munition ship in Halifax harbour on December 6, 1917; when the buildings of the Nova Scotian seaport were shattered as if by an earthquake, and thousands of her citizens lost their lives or suffered dreadful injuries.

Before the War, in the old lands and the new, women had long been urgently demanding that they should be permitted to vote at the elections for Members of Parliament. A constantly growing number, both of men and women, believed that women should not be shut out from the privileges of citizen-

ship when they had to share its burdens. Besides, in all the fighting countries women had undertaken new kinds of work to help win the war. In Great Britain this had been very noticeable. An official, or political, recognition of their splendid aid seemed therefore only due. For Canada's part, at last in the midst of the War, during the years 1916 and 1917, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, British Columbia, and Ontario, granted to women the right of voting at Provincial and Municipal elections on the same conditions as men. In 1917, by the War-Time Elections Act, the right to vote for Dominion Members of Parliament was given to any woman who "is the wife, widow, mother, sister, or daughter, of any person, male or female, who is serving or has served with the naval or military forces of Canada or Great Britain;" and in 1918 the Dominion franchise was granted to women on the same basis as men.

The War left Canada no longer a dependency, but a British nation—which had fought side by side with the other nations within the British Commonwealth. As such a nation, Canada signed the Treaty of Peace, exactly as Great Britain signed it. As such a nation Canada, like Great Britain, is a member of the League of Nations, which aims so to unite the nations as to make recourse to war at least difficult. It is a far cry from the struggling colony of old on the St. Lawrence to the great State of to-day.

The Duke of Connaught left Canada at the completion of his five years as Governor-General, in the autumn of 1916.

CONNAUGHT

The Duchess of Connaught died in 1917, leaving three children: Arthur (Prince Arthur of Connaught, who was Governor-General of South Africa 1920-23), Margaret, who became the wife of Gustavus Adolphus, Crown Prince of Sweden, but who died in 1920, and Patricia—best known in Canada, where she was very popular, as Princess Patricia or simply “Princess Pat”—, who on her marriage in 1919 with Capt. the Hon. A. R. M. Ramsay, R.N., late Naval Attaché in Paris, took the title of Lady Patricia Ramsay. Princess Patricia is a devotee of Art, and during her stay in Canada some of her paintings were frequently shown and attracted attention at different Art Exhibitions held there.

Early in 1921 the Duke of Connaught visited India on behalf of the King to inaugurate the new Legislatures.



Devonshire

(49th Governor-General of Canada).

1916—1921.

DEVONSHIRE

(49th Governor-General of Canada).

1916—1921.

VICTOR *Christian William Cavendish, 9th Duke of Devonshire*, was successor to the Duke of Connaught. Born May 31, 1868, he was educated at Eton, and Trinity College, Cambridge. Eldest son of the late Lord Edward Cavendish. When his uncle, Spencer Compton Cavendish, the 8th Duke (previously known as Lord Hartington), died in 1908 without children, he became 9th Duke.

From quite early days he had been a politician, a member (Liberal-Unionist) of the House of Commons for Derbyshire W. (1891-1908), and a member of the Unionist administration; Treasurer of H.M. Household 1900-03; Financial Secretary to the Treasury 1903-05; a Civil Lord of the Admiralty 1915-16.

As the frightful conflict in Europe became fiercer, the feeling in Canada grew strong that.

for the better carrying on of the war, party differences should be temporarily disregarded. Accordingly, in October 1917, several members of the Liberal party entered the Borden Ministry, so forming what was known as the "Union Government."

During the session of 1917 a Bill was passed at Ottawa to provide by compulsory military enlistment "such reinforcements as might be necessary to maintain the Canadian army in the field as one of the finest fighting units of the Empire."

In the same year was passed the Military Voters' Act, giving to every British subject, male or female, who had gone on active service with the Canadian naval or military forces, the right to vote at Dominion elections.

The twelfth Parliament of Canada, which on account of the war had lasted a year beyond the regular time (five years), was dissolved in October 1917, and on December 17th following a general election was held, at which many women voted for the first time. The Union Government was returned to power and its action with regard to compulsory military service was sustained.

1917 was the year of the golden jubilee of Confederation and the actual jubilee day, July 1st, falling on a Sunday, was kept as a day of "humble prayer and intercession to Almighty God" for those who were offering their lives in the war, and for "a speedy and enduring peace."

On September 20, 1917, the Great Quebec Bridge across the St. Lawrence, about 8 miles above the city, was completed by the hoisting

DEVONSHIRE

into position of its huge central span, and opened for traffic in 1918. The building was begun several years before, but its completion was long delayed owing to two serious accidents during its construction. In 1907 part of the steel structure gave way, 60 persons being killed and 10 injured. In 1916 the central span fell into the river when being hoisted into position and 12 workmen lost their lives.

On February 17th, 1919, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, one of the greatest figures in the political life of Canada, passed from the scene, in his 78th year, after a very brief illness. For 45 years he had sat in the Dominion Parliament (after 3 years' experience in the Quebec Legislature), and for over 31 years he had been leader of the Liberal party. "To the affairs of State in which his life was passed," said Sir Robert Borden, "and to which his wonderful ability was consecrated, he brought remarkable gifts of leadership." "His personality was singularly attractive and magnetic . . ." In speaking to the students of the University of Toronto in 1913, Sir Wilfrid Laurier struck the keynote of his own life: "Go out into the world to service. . . . Serve God and your country. Be firm in the right as God gives you to see the right . . . You may meet reverse—but the following day stand up and renew the conflict, for truth and justice shall triumph in the end."

In 1919 H.R.H. the Prince of Wales made his first official tour of Canada and was received everywhere with the greatest enthusiasm. On September 1st he laid the

DEVONSHIRE

foundation stone of the fine Victory Memorial Tower of the new Parliament Buildings at Ottawa.

The following year (1920) Sir Robert Borden was succeeded by Rt. Hon. Arthur Meighen as Premier of Canada. In the spring a Trade Conference had been held in the Canadian capital between the Dominion and British West Indian Governments. On November 15th, the first meeting of the League of Nations Assembly took place at Geneva, Switzerland.

The Imperial Conference met in London (June 20-August 5) in 1921. That same year the Duke of Devonshire was replaced as Governor-General by Lord Byng.

The Duke of Devonshire is Lord-Lieutenant of Derbyshire, President of Territorial Forces, Derby, and Chancellor of Leeds University; also High Steward of Cambridge University since 1923. He was Secretary of State for the Colonies, 1922-24. He owns enormous estates. His Derbyshire residence, Chatsworth, contains interesting Art galleries and has a beautiful Deer Park. He owns also much of Bolton Abbey, Yorkshire, occupying one of the finest sites in England, and of Eastbourne. Other properties are Irish estates, and in Furness, which include the ground on which Barrow stands.

He married in 1892 Lady Evelyn Emily Mary Fitzmaurice, daughter of the (5th) Marquis of Lansdowne, who was Governor-General of Canada 1883-88. The Duke of Devonshire's eldest son and heir is called the Marquis of Hartington.



Byng

(50th Governor-General of Canada).

1921—1926.

BYNG

(50th Governor-General of Canada).

1921—1926.

GENERAL *Julian Hedworth George Byng, 1st Viscount of Vimy and of Thorpe-le-Soken,* was appointed to succeed the Duke of Devonshire. Born September 11, 1862, a younger son of the 2nd Earl of Strafford, Lord Byng is a typical British soldier. Educated at Eton, he joined the 10th Hussars in 1883. Next year he saw service in the Sudan (Sudan Expedition of 1884 against the Mahdists), including the battles of Et-Teb and Tamâi. He went through (1899-1902) the South African War, where he commanded the South African Light Horse. He then commanded the 10th Hussars, and was commandant of the cavalry school at Netheravon (Wilts.) 1904-5, and of a cavalry brigade from 1905-9. In 1912 he went as commander-in-chief to Egypt.

In the Great War Byng took the 3rd cavalry division to Belgium in October 1914, and in May 1915 succeeded Allenby as head of the Cavalry Corps. He left that to command the 9th Army Corps in Gallipoli (Dardanelles) and on the evacuation there returned to France, and for about two months commanded the 17th Army Corps. In April 1916 he took over the Canadian Corps, which he led in some of the most desperate fighting on the Somme. His next promotion, June 1917, was to the head of the Third Army. Amongst much distinguished service, his brilliant advance towards Cambrai in November 1917 is most noteworthy and he was made a full general after this battle—which his army fought. He took a leading part in defeating the German offensive in the spring of 1918 and in the ensuing advance, and gained another success in August of that year.

Knighted in 1915, he was raised to the peerage in August 1919 as Baron Byng de Vimy and of Thorpe-le-Soken (Essex), was thanked by Parliament for his distinguished services and granted £30,000. He retired from the Army in November 1919, on becoming chairman of the body appointed to administer the fund formed out of the accumulated profits of army canteen trading during the war.

In May 1921 a preferential tariff arrangement between Canada and the British West Indies became effective. Lord Byng took office as Governor-General on August 11th. November 11th of the same year was the date of opening of the Conference on limitation of armament at Washington, and on December

BYNG

6th the Dominion general election was held, with the result that the Conservatives (Meighen Government which had succeeded that of Sir Robert Borden) were defeated and the Liberals returned with Rt. Hon. W. L. Mackenzie King as Premier.

On February 1st, 1922 the Arms Conference at Washington approved the Five-Power Treaty limiting capital fighting ships and pledging against unrestricted submarine warfare and use of poison gas. On October 1st, 1923, the Imperial Conference and Imperial Economic Conference opened in London. In the spring of 1924 the British Empire Exhibition was opened at Wembley. On July 6th, 1925, a trade agreement between Canada and the British West Indies was signed at Ottawa. On October 29th new Dominion general elections took place, the Mackenzie King administration being sustained. During the 1st session (January-July, 1926) of this 15th Canadian Parliament, reductions of income and other taxes were announced in the Budget Speech (April 15). On June 28th the Rt. Hon. W. L. Mackenzie King and his Cabinet resigned and the next day the Rt. Hon. Arthur Meighen became Prime Minister, being called upon by Lord Byng, the Governor-General, to form a new Ministry.

On July 13th the composition of the Meighen Cabinet was announced, but owing to its lack of command of a working majority in the House, Parliament had to be dissolved and new Dominion general elections were held again on September 14th. The net result was the re-election by the people of Mr. Mackenzie

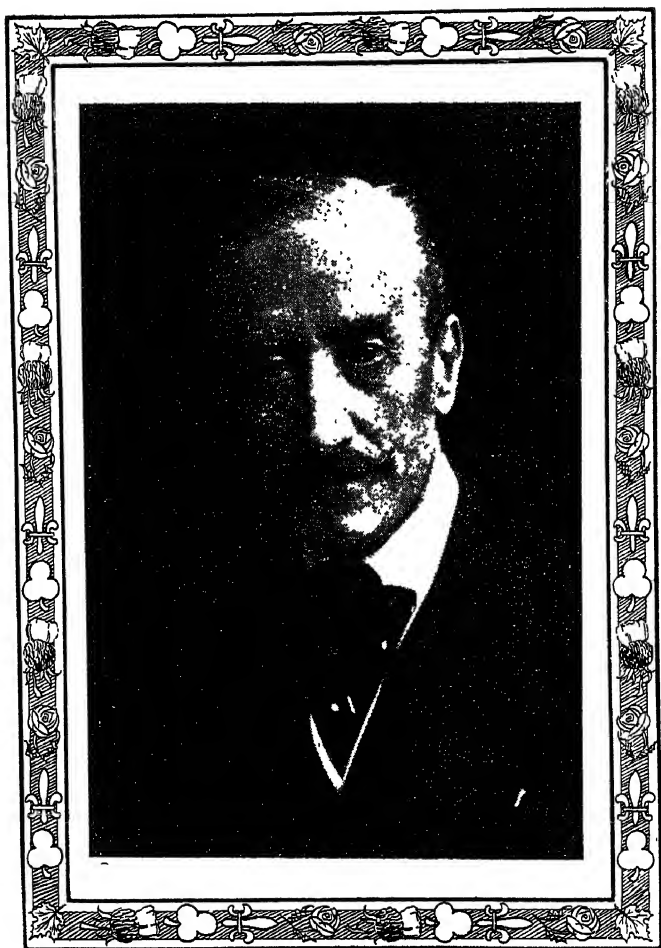
King's government, which came back to power on September 25th, 1926. In the following month, on October 2nd, Lord Willingdon took Lord Byng's place as Governor-General.

A constitutional issue, or dispute, arose out of the political events of 1926, with Lord Byng's refusal of dissolution of Parliament to Mr. Mackenzie King in June of that year—immediately after which Mr. Mackenzie King, his advice as First Minister having thus been declined by the Governor-General, tendered his resignation, as mentioned above—and the subsequent dissolution granted by Lord Byng to Mr. Meighen in July, the following month. The Governor-General's (Lord Byng's) contention was that Mr. Meighen (the Opposition leader) "should be given a chance of trying to govern, or saying that he cannot do so, and that all reasonable expedients should be tried before resorting to another election." Mr. King's advice was, on the other hand, that the existing situation in the Canadian House of Commons (where an elusive Government majority, consisting of a vote or two only, prevented the normal course of business from being carried on) demanded such a dissolution, and that there should be another election to enable the people to decide upon a new House of Commons. The main position assumed by Mr. Meighen and the Conservatives was that "there was in reality no constitutional issue" and that "the late Government was not entitled to dissolve Parliament while a vote of censure was under debate." At the general election, however, which inevitably followed, the verdict was, as stated before, in favour of the Mackenzie King

government. The Conservative tide, which had flowed in the preceding year's election, turned to ebb in 1926. The Conservative strength in the House sank from 116 to 91 for the whole Dominion, and the Liberals were returned with a majority of about 40, Mr. Meighen (Prime Minister) and six members of his Cabinet being defeated.

Lord Byng married in 1902 Marie Evelyn, daughter of the late Hon. Sir Richard Moreton, K.C.V.O. Lady Byng is the authoress of "Barriers" (1912), and "Anne of the Marshland" (1913).

Lord Byng was created a Viscount on his retirement (October 1926) from the governor-generalship of Canada, and in 1928 was appointed Commissioner of the Metropolitan Police—a position which he resigned in the autumn of 1931.



Willingdon

(51st Governor-General of Canada).

1926—1931.

WILLINGDON

(51st Governor-General of Canada).

1926—1931.

FREEMAN *Freeman-Thomas, 1st Baron Willingdon of Ratton* (1910), *1st Viscount* (1924), became successor to Lord Byng, whose term expired in the summer of 1926, and took office October 2 of that year. He is the grandson, through his mother, of the 1st Viscount Hampden (Sir Henry Bouverie William Brand), famous as "Mr. Speaker Brand," a noted Speaker of the British House of Commons during the years of the Parnellite obstruction. He was A.D.C. to Lord Brassey (1st Earl) when the latter was Governor of Victoria (Australia), 1895-1900. Became M.P. (Lib.) for Hastings, 1900-6, and Bodmin Division of Cornwall, 1906-10; Junior Lord

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of the Treasury, 1905-12; Governor of Bombay, 1913-19, and of Madras 1919-24, and was present as Delegate for India at the Assembly of the League of Nations in 1924. Lord Willingdon had privately become acquainted with Canada on a trip across that country while *en route* to China as chairman of the delegation to that country, January-July 1926, to return the Boxer indemnities on behalf of the British Treasury.

The triennial Imperial Conference re-assembled at 10, Downing Street, on October 19, 1926, and concluded its labours on November 23, after five weeks of active work. The Empire delegations were (not counting Great Britain) Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, Irish Free State, Newfoundland, and India. Canada was represented by the Rt. Hon. Mackenzie King, Prime Minister, and Hon. Ernest Lapointe, Minister of Justice. Important, far-reaching, resolutions were passed, and the Report on Inter-Imperial Relations, in particular, which was ratified by the full Conference on November 19, constitutes a great State document. It takes the view that nothing would be gained by attempting to lay down a Constitution for the Empire, and defines the position and mutual relation of Great Britain and the Dominions as follows:

"They are autonomous Communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate to one another in any respect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown, and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations."

CHANGE IN STATUS OF GOVERNOR-GENERAL.

Beginning with Viscount Willingdon, the Governor-General of Canada ceases in future, as a result of the change of status effected at the 1926 Imperial Conference, to be, as in the past, the diplomatic representative or agent of the Home Government (who is to be henceforth a British High Commissioner in Canada). He is solely the representative of the Crown, appointed by His Majesty on the advice of his Canadian Ministers, and holding in all essentials the same position in relation to the administration of public affairs in the Dominion as is held by His Majesty the King in Great Britain. The recognized channel of communication will therefore be as between government and government direct. This important change took effect on July 1st, 1927—date of the Diamond Jubilee of Confederation—, since when direct communication has been instituted, and was followed by the appointment (April 25, 1928) by Great Britain of Sir William Clark as first High Commissioner to Canada.

The Conference further laid down that, as a consequence of this equality of status, "it is the right of the Government of each Dominion to advise the Crown in all matters relating to its own affairs." It would be against constitutional practice for advice to be tendered to His Majesty by the Government of Great Britain in any matter concerning a Dominion, against the views of the Government of that Dominion.

As to treaty-making, the principle fixed at the Imperial Conference of 1923 was reaffirmed and elucidated. In accordance with

this principle a Government which proposed to make a treaty should give notice to other parts of the Empire likely to be interested, and if it received no objections was entitled to assume concurrence.

It was frankly recognized that in the general conduct of foreign policy, as in the sphere of defence, the major share of responsibility rested and must continue to rest, for some time to come, with the Government of Great Britain, which has obtained the sanction of the Dominions for the purpose.

In November 1926, Hon. Vincent Massey was appointed Canadian Minister (Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary) at Washington. Immediately following this appointment the United States courteously reciprocated by accrediting to Canada a representative of high rank in the person of Hon. William Phillips, former U.S. Ambassador to Belgium, who, as first American Minister to Canada, reached Ottawa on June 2, 1927. Mr. Phillips resigned in 1929, the present U.S. Minister in Canada being the Hon. Hanford MacNider. The Canadian Legation was opened in Washington on February 18th, 1927. During the session of 1926-27 an appropriation of \$500,000 was voted for the purchase of a residence and office for the Canadian Minister there. Suitable quarters were found and the Legation took up residence in June, 1927. The Canadian Commissioner's Office in Paris was raised concurrently to the rank of Legation (which was subsequently officially inaugurated as such by the Prime Minister, Mr. Mackenzie King, on

October 2, 1928) with Hon. Philippe Roy, the Commissioner for Canada, as first Canadian Minister to France; while the forthcoming establishment of a Canadian Legation in Tokio (Japan) was authoritatively announced.

The Budget Speech of February 17, 1927, declared reductions of income tax, sales tax, and stamp tax on cheques.

The principal event of the year 1927 was for Canada the celebration of the Diamond Jubilee of Confederation (1867-1927). The central celebration took place at Ottawa on Parliament Hill on July 1st (Dominion Day), when the new carillon, specially made in England, of the Victory Tower of Parliament was heard for the first time. Its notes, together with the addresses delivered at the morning and afternoon meetings, were transmitted by radio throughout the length and breadth of Canada. The celebrations were continued on July 2, which had been proclaimed a public holiday; and on Sunday, July 3, solemn thanksgiving services were held on Parliament Hill and throughout the country. Besides the national celebration at the Capital, local celebrations were held in almost every city, town, and village, of the land.

The festivities connected with the Diamond Jubilee were renewed a few weeks later when Their Royal Highnesses the Prince of Wales and Prince George, together with the Rt. Hon. Stanley Baldwin, Prime Minister of Great Britain, reached Quebec on July 30, and Ottawa on August 2; this had been the first occasion on which a British Prime Minister has visited Canada during his term of office. On

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August 3, the Prince of Wales dedicated the Memorial Chamber in the Parliament Buildings, Ottawa, to Canada's 60,000 dead in the Great War. On August 7, the International Peace Bridge, connecting Fort Erie (Ontario, Canada) with Buffalo (N.Y., United States), was dedicated with imposing ceremonies, in which the Prince of Wales, Prince George, and the Prime Ministers of Great Britain and Canada, took part, together with the Vice-President of the United States, Mr. Chas. G. Dawes, and Governor Smith, of New York State.

Thereafter the Prince of Wales, Prince George, and Mr. Baldwin, visited Western Canada, though Mr. Baldwin was compelled to cut short his trip and sailed from Sydney, Nova Scotia, on August 18. The Prince of Wales and Prince George, after visiting the former's ranch in Alberta and going as far as the Pacific coast, sailed from Quebec City on September 7.

The long-standing controversy between Canada and Newfoundland with regard to their boundary in the Labrador Peninsula had been, by consent of both parties, referred to the Privy Council for decision. On March 1, 1927, this decision, awarding to Newfoundland an immense area, including the Hamilton (Grand) Falls and valuable forests, was rendered. About 110,000 square miles of territory was thereby lost to Quebec and Canada.

At the meeting of the Assembly of the League of Nations in September 1927, Canada was elected to a non-permanent seat on the Council of the League. The Council meets at

least four times a year; the five permanent members are Great Britain, France, Italy, Germany, and Japan, while the other nine non-permanent members are Poland, Rumania, Holland, Canada, Chile, Colombia, China, Finland, and Cuba.

In the summer of 1928, the Premier of Canada, Mr. Mackenzie King, had come over to Europe to attend in person the meeting of the League of Nations—at the opening of the Assembly of which he was elected one of the vice-presidents. On his way to Geneva he stopped in Paris to sign, on behalf of Canada, the Kellogg Peace Pact.

In 1928 an exchange of Ministers was agreed to between the Governments of Canada and Japan, and Hon. H. M. Marler was appointed the following year (1929) as the first Canadian Minister to Japan (Tokio). The Japanese Government has appointed Mr. Iyemasa Tokugawa—the present Japanese Minister in Ottawa—as its first Minister to Canada.

For the second time in history a British Prime Minister visited Canada during his term of office (Mr. Baldwin having been first to do so in 1927), when Mr. Ramsay Macdonald, after visiting the United States on a mission of international peace and reduction of armament, came to Canada in October 1929, visited Toronto, Ottawa (where he was sworn in a member of the King's Privy Council for Canada), Montreal, the Saguenay, and Quebec City. Hon. J. H. Thomas, at the time Lord Privy Seal, had made an official visit to Canada during the summer of that same year (1929) in order to discuss immigration and trade.

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The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council decided on October 18, 1929, that under the British North America Act women were eligible for membership of the Canadian Senate. Effect was subsequently given to this decision by the appointment of the Hon. Cairine M. Wilson to the Senate in February 1930.

Hon. Peter Larkin, the High Commissioner for Canada in Great Britain, died at his residence in London on February 3rd, 1930. Hon. G. Howard Ferguson, ex-Premier of Ontario, was appointed as his successor and took up office in the early part of 1931.

On July 28, 1930, the Canadian General Election took place and resulted in the defeat of Mr. Mackenzie King's Liberal Government, the Conservatives securing a substantial majority over all other groups. On August 6th the Mackenzie King Cabinet tendered its resignation and two days later the replacing (Conservative) Cabinet formed by the Rt. Hon. R. B. Bennett was sworn in by the Governor-General. The new Premier of Canada is 61 years of age and succeeded Hon. Mr. Meighen as leader of the Conservative party in 1927. He was born at Hopewell, New Brunswick, in 1870, and is a lawyer by profession.

On August 1st, 1930, the British airship R100 moored at St. Hubert (Que.), the airport of Montreal, having flown over from Cardington, Bedfordshire, England, which she left on July 29 for Canada. She had trouble with the fabric of a fin, which was temporarily repaired on the way, when over the valley of the St. Lawrence River, near Quebec City. She made

the return (eastbound) journey from Montreal (St. Hubert) to Cardington in 56 hours.

On October 1st, 1930, the Imperial Conference opened in London, the new Canadian Prime Minister, Mr. Bennett, offering a 10 per cent. preference in the Canadian market in exchange for like preference in the Empire, explaining that it meant an increase of from 30 to 33 per cent. on existing or future duties. A few weeks previously Mr. Bennett had announced in Ottawa a number of tariff increases, including several on textiles. Mr. Ramsay Macdonald, Premier of Great Britain, acted as chairman of the Conference. The British Government replied that where tariffs existed in this country preferences would be given; but, as members of the Labour Cabinet had stated their desire to sweep away all tariffs, this reply to Mr. Bennett was not considered hopeful. Mr. Wm. Graham, M.P., on behalf of the Government, said that if Canada wanted a larger place in the wheat market, Great Britain would require a larger benefit from Canada, with perhaps a coal agreement. Later, the Government stated that it favoured a quota system. As, on the whole, the Conference, which had resolved itself mainly into a Trade-within-the-Empire one, failed to achieve as such any practical result and Mr. Bennett's plan could not be found acceptable to the British Government, an Empire Economic Conference to be held in Ottawa early in 1931 was then proposed, and decided upon, as a supplementary alternative. But even this project has since been realized to be inexpedient under the circumstances, and consequently was postponed.

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On October 5th, 1930, the British Empire, even as the whole world, was horrified at the news of the appalling disaster to airship R101, which that morning crashed—colliding with a hill in stormy weather—at Allonne, close to Beauvais (40 miles north of Paris), while on a voyage to India. Of the 54 persons on board 46 were killed (burnt to death) and two others died from terrible injuries. Those lost included Lord Thomson, Air Minister, Sir Sefton Brancker, Director of Civil Aviation, Flight-Lt. H. C. Irwin, the airship's Captain, Wing Commander Colmore, Major G. H. Scott, and Col. Richmond, her chief designer. Their bodies were brought to London and lay in state in Westminster Hall, enormous crowds passing by the 48 coffins; and a memorial service was held at St. Paul's Cathedral. Then they were buried in one huge grave at Cardington (Bedfordshire), which they had left a week earlier by air. R101 had left Cardington at 7.36 p.m., on Saturday, October 4th, and passed over London two hours later, and at 1.50 a.m. the following morning she reported her position north of Beauvais. Within 15 minutes of this message the huge airship was a mass of blazing wreckage. R101 had had various tentative flights prior to setting forth on her ill-fated journey. The successful flight of the sister airship R100 to and from Canada two months before encouraged the expectation that R101 would surpass that achievement, as various improvements had been made in her. The weather, it is true, had been unsettled, but the Air Ministry considered it was safe for the flight to India to begin on October 4, and

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accordingly the airship left. She was seen, however, by people to be flying low that night over England before she crossed to France.

On March 14, 1931, the British Empire Trade Exhibition at Buenos Aires was opened by the Prince of Wales. Canada participated, having its own Pavilion, and sent a Trade Mission numbering 150 members.

During the course of the winter (1931) Major W. D. Herridge, of Ottawa, was appointed Canadian Minister at Washington, in succession to Hon. Vincent Massey who had resigned his post.

Lord Willingdon left Canada on January 16th, 1931, on his way to India (*via* London) to take up his new duties there as Viceroy in succession to Lord Irwin. It is interesting to recall that in going from Ottawa to India Lord Willingdon follows precedent; three other Governors-General of Canada—Lord Minto, Lord Lansdowne, and Lord Dufferin—having been in turn representatives of the King in India. Hence Lord Willingdon takes his place in a distinguished line of diplomats of the old school. General regret was expressed at the departure of Lord and Lady Willingdon. Lord Willingdon has shown high qualities of tactful statesmanship and won universal esteem, often in circumstances of racial and political difficulty. Hence it is that Canadians anticipated his success in India—an anticipation which has already been realized to the full in the short time since his appointment to that most important and exalted position. Lady Willingdon's name was equally revered with that of her husband, for

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they had always equally together faced the problems of life during the four years and a quarter of their stay in Canada with a desire to be fair to every class and section of the community. Lord Willingdon himself was the first to recognise the able support received from Lady Willingdon and on several occasions paid a graceful tribute to her help. "My wife," he once stated, "has been a constant inspiration and encouragement."

Lord and Lady Willingdon were married in 1892. Lady Willingdon (Hon. Marie Adelaide Brassey) is the daughter of the late Lord (1st Earl) Brassey, who died in 1918 and was Governor of Victoria (Australia) 1895-1900. He was himself the eldest son of Thomas Brassey, a Cheshire farmer, who became, at the time when the earliest railways were being made in England, a railway engineer and contractor and subsequently constructed the Grand Trunk Railway in Canada. Lady Willingdon's mother, Lady Brassey—a great traveller with her husband—wrote the pleasant records of her yacht voyage round the world under the title of "*A Voyage in the Sunbeam*," and other books of travel, which were widely popular. Lady Willingdon received the Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal in June 1915 for her special work during the War, and the Decoration of the Crown of India on January 1, 1917. She was created G.B.E. in 1924. Lord Willingdon's only surviving son and heir is Hon. Inigo Brassey Freeman-Thomas, born July 25, 1899, who married in 1924 Maxine, daughter of Sir Johnston Forbes-Robertson.



Bessborough

(52nd Governor-General of Canada).

1931—

BESSBOROUGH

(52nd Governor-General of Canada).

1931—

VERE *Brahazon Ponsonby*, 9th Earl of *Bessborough*, was appointed Governor-General in place of Lord Willingdon, the new Viceroy of India. He arrived at Halifax, Nova Scotia, on April 4, 1931, the swearing-in ceremony—broadcast throughout the Dominion—being immediately held in the Provincial Parliament Building of that city. Lord Bessborough was born in 1880 and is the eldest son of the 8th Earl and Blanche Vere, C.B.E. (who died in 1919), daughter of Sir John Guest. He succeeded his father in 1920. Educated at Harrow, and Trinity College, Cambridge, he was called to the Bar in 1903 and is a member of the Inner Temple. He has had a distinguished career as a politician, soldier, and business man. For three years (1907-10) he served on the London County

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Council. In January 1910 he was returned to the House of Commons as a Conservative member for Cheltenham, but he was defeated in the following December. He had contested Carmarthen Boroughs as a Unionist in 1906. In 1913 he re-entered Parliament as member for Dover, which he represented as a Conservative till 1920.

During the War he served in Gallipoli (1915) and in France on the staff from 1916 to 1918, being a close friend and disciple of Sir Henry Wilson. He was made C.M.G. in 1919, and is Chevalier de la Légion d'Honneur; he also received the Italian Order of S.S. Maurice and Lazarus, the Belgian Order of Leopold, the Greek Order of the Redeemer, and the Russian Order of Ste. Anne.

Lord Bessborough has large business interests, being associated with no fewer than 35 firms, covering a wide range of activities; and since the Peace has shown a marked aptitude for, and distinguished himself in, this field. He is Deputy-Chairman of De Beers Consolidated Mines, Ltd., since 1924; Joint Chairman of Unilever, Ltd., the £14,000,000 margarine combine; and his directorships include the Underground Electric Railways Co. of London, Ltd., and the London Electric Supply Corporation, Ltd., of which (the latter) he is Chairman.

His great recreation is amateur theatricals. At Stansted Park, Emsworth (opposite Hayling Island), his Sussex seat, he has a fully-equipped theatre, and Stansted "shows" have won a high reputation.

Lord Bessborough married in 1912 Mademoiselle Roberte de Neufflize, a French-

woman, only daughter of the late Baron Jean de Neuflyze, Officier de la Légion d'Honneur, who died a little over two years ago and was head of de Neuflyze and Co., a leading French firm of bankers and financiers, also Regent (one of the 15 members of the General Council of the Bank) of the Banque de France, President of the Cie d'Assurances Générales, Vice-President of the Paris-Lyon-Méditerranée Railway, President of the Régie de Tabac Ottoman, etc., and who married Miss Dolfus-Davillier. Baron de Neuflyze lived in Paris and his country-seat was Château de Tilles, near Coye (a few miles south of Chantilly), Dept. of Oise, France. Lord and Lady Bessborough have two sons: Frederick, Viscount Duncannon, born in 1913, who is heir to the title, and their infant son born in Montreal on August 14, 1931 (this is the first time that a child has been born to the wife of a Governor-General while resident in Canada since the Countess of Dufferin gave birth to Lord Frederick Blackwood—3rd Marquis—at Ottawa in 1875), who was christened, as a tribute to his Royal Godfather, King George, and to commemorate the great Canadian river on the shores of which he was born, "George St. Lawrence Neuflyze;" and a daughter, Lady Moyra Ponsonby, born in 1918. Six years ago their second son, the Hon. Desmond Ponsonby, was thrown from his pony, which bolted, and he died from his injuries.

So intimate a connection between France and the family of the new Governor-General has given great satisfaction in Canada, where there are over 3,000,000 French-

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Canadians; and, to the latter's gratification, Rideau Hall—the residence of the Governors-General at Ottawa—will now have in the person of Lady Bessborough, who received a warm welcome, a French châtelaine for the first time in its history.

Lord Bessborough has taken with him to Canada a new flag for State occasions—the new Governor-General's flag (which is on the lines of the President's flag in the United States or the Royal Standard in Great Britain), the design of which has come into being under the direct inspiration of the King. The flag used hitherto by the Governors-General of Canada was regarded as out-of-date. According to heraldic experts, the crown it bore should have been eliminated from official standards when Queen Victoria became Empress of India. Lord Bessborough's flag—he being the first Governor-General of Canada to fly the new Governor-General's flag—bears what is known as an Imperial crown as distinct from a Royal crown. It is blazoned in the centre, and is surmounted by an heraldic lion. Beneath the crown is the word "Canada." No other emblem appears on the flag, which is of a deep blue. In Lord Bessborough's own words, when addressing the Canadian Club in Ottawa, "this flag is the outward and visible sign of a very important and useful step in the political evolution of Canada and the whole British Empire."

In the summer of 1931 all records for the crossing both to and from Canada were broken by the new Canadian Pacific liner *Empress of Britain* (42,500 tons), which on

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her maiden voyage to Quebec accomplished the passage from Cherbourg to Father Point (Que.), *via* Cape Race, in 4 days and 19½ hrs. This time record she has now lowered successively by several hours on each following trip (*via* Belle Isle Straits), until at the time of writing (August 1931) she completed her last westbound voyage (Cherbourg to Father Point, where she arrived on August 3rd) in exactly 4½ days. In July she even bettered this remarkable time by crossing from Father Point to Cherbourg, on her second eastbound return voyage, in 4 days, 9 hrs., 27 minutes.

THE END.

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